

Evelyn Stewart Murray
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A GRAMMAR
OF THE
IRISH LANGUAGE

BY

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Every effort has been made to reproduce this document as a faithful copy of the original.

Fonts have been chosen with care. Georgia for English text, and **Gæl bx unicodæ** for Irish text. For increased clarity, the Irish text is magnified by three points, so that the lower case ‘n’ heights match better.

The original Irish font was difficult to read, and had the old long ‘r’ and ‘s’. This new font uses the short characters which are much easier on the eye.

Many of Joyce’s quoted examples are from early texts, and he freely uses the various spellings found in the originals. I have not made any effort to change these. However, there are cases of τά with, and without ρά in the original, often in the same paragraph, or even line. this I have corrected, assuming it a printer’s error, though I acknowledge that there was in the recent past, a belief that the vowel in a monosyllable ending in a vowel was by default, long. Likewise some séimicé dots are missing in the original. Here I have corrected the assumed printing error without qualm.

Though I have exercised great care in this work, it is inevitable that some errors of mine have crept in. Therfore, please compare this with the original, which you can find, either on Archive.org:

<http://www.archive.org/details/grammarofirishlao1joyc>

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Is mise, le meas,
Dægeb.

PREFACE.

Though this text-book is small, it comprises, I believe, everything necessary—so far as grammar is concerned—for a student of modern Irish. I have not treated at all of the ancient forms of the language; and I have excluded everything in the shape of dissertation: the grammar of the modern Irish language, and no more, is here set forth in words as few and simple as possible.

I have not suggested any changes either in spelling or in grammatical forms, or attempted innovation of any kind: this is a grammar of the language as it actually exists in the works of our best writers.

All the illustrative examples are quotations from standard Irish writings; but though I retain the references, I have not given them in the grammar, as they would encumber the book, and impede, rather than facilitate the learner. I may mention here, however, that the works from which the examples are chiefly taken, are, those of Keating, the publications of the Ossianic Society, “The Three Sorrowful Stories of Erin” (viz., “The Fate of the Children of Usna,” “The Fate of the Children of Lir,” and “The Fate of the Children of Turenn”), and occasionally the “Annals of the Four Masters.” The language of the various works published by the Archaeological and Celtic Societies is generally too antiquated to be quoted in a grammar of modern Irish.

I have all through given word-for-word translations of the examples; free translations would have been more pleasant to read, but would have added considerably to the learner’s difficulty.

In the last Part—“Idioms”—I have given a popular rather than a scientific explanation of the principal idioms of the language. Nothing like this is to be found in any other Irish Grammar; and I believe that the learner who masters it will be saved much labour and perplexity.

There are several other Irish Grammars, but none low enough in price to be within reach of the many. Whoever wishes to study the Irish language in its ancient as well as in its modern forms, must procure O'Donovan's Grammar; without this great work no one can attain a thorough knowledge of the language. I may also mention "The College Irish Grammar," by the Rev. Ulick J. Canon Bourke, in which there is a great amount of miscellaneous information on the language, proverbs, and popular literature of Ireland.

The labours of the Society for the Preservation of the Irish Language have lately given a great impetus to Celtic studies. The Society has produced two admirable little elementary books (the First and Second Irish Books) and are about to bring out a third all drawn up by the members themselves on the plan of the elementary works of Smith, Arnold, Ahn, &c. But the want of a very cheap and simple text-book on Irish Grammar has been much felt; and this Grammar has been written to supply the want. I have written it with the cognisance of the Council of the Society, of which I am myself a member. It was at first intended that the name of the Society should appear on the title-page along with my own name, and a resolution to that effect was passed by the Council. But I found some difficulty as to the exact words, and I have accordingly contented myself with mentioning the matter here.

I acknowledge with thanks that I have received valuable assistance from several gentlemen of the Society, who read every word of my proofs, suggesting various corrections, alterations, and improvements. One member in particular, Mr. John Fleming of Rathgormuck, in the county Waterford, read all my manuscript in the first instance, and all the proof-sheets afterwards. Mr. Fleming's assistance was invaluable to me, for he possesses an intimate knowledge of modern Irish Grammar, language, and literature, and what is still better, much sound sense and clear critical judgment.

Dublin, November, 1878.

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SCHOOL IRISH GRAMMAR.

PART I. ORTHOGRAPHY.

CHAPTER I.

SOUNDS.

I. LETTERS.

1. The Irish alphabet consists of eighteen letters, of which thirteen are consonants and five are vowels.

2. The five vowels are *á*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u*; of which *á*, *o*, *u* are broad, and *e*, *i* are slender.

3. Each consonant (with the exceptions mentioned below) has a broad and a slender sound. When a consonant comes immediately after or before a broad vowel, it has its broad sound: when it comes after or before a slender vowel, it has its slender sound. But this does not apply to *b*, *f*, *h*, *m*, *p*, each of which has one sound only, whether joined with a broad vowel or a slender vowel.

4. Vowels are either long or short. A long vowel is usually marked by an accent; as *bán*, white: a short vowel has no mark; as *mac*, a son.

5. The Irish vowels, like the English, have an obscure sound in unaccented syllables, of which it is not necessary to take further notice here.

6. The following are the usual sounds of the Irish letters, so far as they can be represented by English letters.

7. Those marked with asterisks are only imperfectly represented in sound by the corresponding English letters: those not so marked are represented perfectly or very nearly so.

8. The sounds of the marked letters must be learned by ear: it is hardly possible to give in writing such a description of them as would enable a learner to utter them.

9. C is equal to *k*, yet when it comes before the diphthong *ao* or the triphthong *aοι*, beginners find it very hard to sound it: *cəol* (narrow) is neither *kail* or *quail*, but something between: *cəοin* (gentle) is neither *keen* or *queen*, but something between.

10. So also with *g*, which (broad and slender) is equal to *g* in *got* and *get*: yet *gəol* is hard for a beginner to utter, being neither *gail* nor *gwail*, but something between.

11. The Irish broad *v* and *t* bear the same relation to each other as the English *d* and *t*; that is, the first in each case is flat or soft, and the second sharp or hard. English *d* and *t* are sounded by placing the tip of the tongue against the roof of the mouth: Irish *v* and *t* by placing the top of the tongue against the upper front teeth. Irish *v* and *t* may be described in another way: the two sounds of *th* in *those* and *thumb* are both continuous, the first flat, the second sharp. Now the two explosive sounds corresponding to these two continuous sounds (i.e., with the tongue in the same position), are exactly the Irish *v* and *t*.

12. Broad *l* and *n* are sounded by placing the top of the tongue (not against the roof of the mouth as in case of English *l* and *n* but) against the upper front teeth. Irish *v* and *t* are to English *d* and *t* as Irish *l* or *n* to English *l* or *n*.

13. Slender *r* is the most difficult of all the Irish consonantal sounds: and learners, unless they have acquired it in youth, often fail to articulate it correctly, though the teacher may sound it over and over again for their imitation.

14. As *h* represents a mere breathing or aspiration and not an articulate sound, and as it never begins a word, some writers exclude it from the letters, thus making seventeen instead of eighteen, as given here.

TABLE OF SOUNDS

Letters.		Vowel long or short.	Consonant broad or slender.	Irish sounds.	Corresponding English sounds.
Irish.	Eng.				
À à	a	long	...	lán	lawn, ball
” ”		short	...	mac	bat or what
ò b	b	ball	ban
c c	c	...	broad	cab	cob
” ”		...	slender	cinn	king
ò ò	d	...	broad	óall	those
” ”		...	slender	óian	cordial
e e	e	long	...	mé	date
” ”		short	...		met
F f	f	finn	fin
S s	g	...	broad	sorc	got
” ”		...	slender	seis	get, gimlet
h h	h	A h-anam	hammer
i i	i	long	...		seen
” ”		short	...	mín	pill
* l l	l	...	broad	lón	lone
” ”		...	slender	file	vermillion
m m	m	mil	mill
* n n	n	...	broad	nór	none
” ”		...	slender	neas	new
o o	o	long	...	mór	more
” ”		short	...	óos	love, run
p p	p	poc	pore
R r	r	...	broad	róó	road
” ”		...	slender	cuir	clarion
s s	s	...	broad	sona	son
” ”		...	slender	sín	sheen
* t t	t	...	broad	tom	thumb
” ”		...	slender	teine	courteous
ú u	u	long	...	múr	moor, rude
” ”		short	...	muc	put, bull

15. The following are the native names of the Irish letters, but they need not be used by the learner. All or most of them are the names of trees. Àilm, a; berí, b; coll, c; óair, d; eaða, e; fearn, f; sorc, g; uač, h; iosa, i; luis, l; muin, m; nuin, n; oir or onn, o; perí-bos, p; ruis, r; suil, s; teine, t; úr, u.

II. DIPHTHONGS.

1. There are thirteen diphthongs in the Irish language—viz., $\Delta\epsilon$, $\Delta\sigma$, $\epsilon\mu$, $\imath\alpha$, $u\alpha$, $\Delta\imath$, $e\Delta$, $e\imath$, ϵo , $\imath o$, $\imath u$, $o\imath$, $u\imath$; of which the first five are always long, and the remaining eight are sometimes long and sometimes short.

2. The following are the sounds of the five long diphthongs :—

3. $\Delta\epsilon$ sounds like *ay* in *slay*; as in $r\Delta\epsilon$, the moon, pronounced *ray*.

4. $\Delta\sigma$, in the southern half of Ireland, sounds nearly like *way*, and in the west and north-west somewhat like *we*. Thus $m\Delta\sigma\sigma$, a steward, is pronounced like *mwair* in the south, and like *mweer* in the west and north-west.

5. $\epsilon\mu$ like *ai* in *lair*; as in $f\epsilon\mu\epsilon\mu$, grass, pronounced *fair*.

6. $\imath\alpha$ like *ee* in *beer*; as in $c\imath\alpha\sigma$, dark-coloured, pronounced *keer*.

7. $u\alpha$ nearly like *oe* in *doer*; as in $lu\alpha n$, Monday, pronounced *loo-an*.

8. The following are the sounds of the eight diphthongs that are sometimes long and sometimes short. When these diphthongs are long there is an accent over one of the vowels: when short there is no accent.

9. $\Delta\imath$ long has an accent over the Δ , and sounds something like the *awi* in *drawing*; as in $c\Delta\imath\sigma$, tribute, pronounced *caw-in*.

$\Delta\imath$ short is sounded something like the *a* in *valiant* or the *o* in *collier*; as in $m\Delta\imath\dot{\sigma}$, good, whose sound is very nearly represented by *moh*.

In Ulster, $\Delta\imath$ short is pronounced like short *e* in *bell*; as in $\Delta\imath\sigma\sigma\sigma\sigma$, restitution, which is pronounced *eshoc* in the north, and *ashoc* in the south and west.

10. $e\Delta$ long has an accent over the e , and sounds

like *ea* in *bear*; thus *méar*, a finger, is pronounced *mare*.

eΔ short sounds like *ea* in *heart* (but shorter); as in **fēas**, knowledge, pronounced *fass*.

11. **éi** long has an accent over the **e**, and sounds like *ei* in *rein*; as **réim**, a course, pronounced *raim*. **éi** short, like *e* in *sell*; as in **céis**, a basket, sounded like *kesh*.

12. **eó** long has an accent over the **o**, and is sounded nearly like long English *o* with a slight sound of *y* before it; as in **ceól**, music, which will be correctly pronounced if a *k* sound is put before the word *yole*.

eo short, nearly like *u* in *shut*, with *y* before it; as in **vöoč**, drink.

Note.—This diphthong is short in only a very few words.

13. **ío** long has an accent over the **i**, and sounds very like *ea* in *hear*; as in **fíon**, wine, pronounced *feen* or *fee-on*.

io short, nearly like short *i*; as in **miorr**, myrrh, which has nearly the same sound as the first syllable of *mirror*.

14. **iu** long has an accent over the **u**, and has the same sound as the diphthongal English *u* in *tune*; as in **fíú**, worthy, which is sounded exactly like *few*.

iu short is sounded like the *u* in *put*, with a *y* before it; as in **fliuč**, wet.

15. **ói** long has an accent over the **o**, and is sounded like the *owi* in *owing*; as in **fóił**, a while, pronounced *fō-il*.

oi short like the *o* in *love*, with a very short *i* at the end; as in **toił**, the will.

16. **úi** long, with an accent over the **u**, is sounded like *ooi* in *cooing*; as **súił**, the eye, pronounce *soo-il*.

ú long, with an accent over the i, has nearly the same sound as *we*; as in *búíðe*, yellow, which is pronounced *bwee*.

ú short is like the *ui* in *quill*; as in *fúiseó̄g*, a lark, pronounced *fwishoge*

III. TRIPHTHONGS.

1. There are commonly reckoned five triphthongs, which are always long:—AOI, EOI, IAI, IUI, UAI.

2. AOI is sounded very like *we*, as in *máoin*, wealth, pronounced *mween*.

3. EOI is sounded like the *yoi* in the combination *yo-ing*; as in *féoil*, flesh, which will be correctly pronounced if the sound of *f* is put before the combination *yō-il*.

4. IAI is sounded like *eei* in *seeing*; as *láīd̄*, a physician.

5. IUI like the *ewi* in *mewing*; as *cíuin*, gentle.

6. UAI like *ooi* in *cooing*; as *buaíl*, strike, which is sounded *boo-il*.

7. The preceding attempts to represent the sounds of the diphthongs and triphthongs are in many cases mere approximations. The student must hear them pronounced, and in no other way is it possible to learn to sound them correctly.

IV. VARIOUS SOUNDS.

1. A and o before m, nn, ll, or ng, in monosyllables, and often before nt and nc, are sounded in Munster like the *ou* in *foul*; as *cám*, crooked, and *cóll*, hazel, pronounced *cowm* and *cowl*; and *gleanntán*, a small glen, pronounced *glounthaun*: and o before ð and š has often the same sound; as *fóglaim*, learning, pronounced *fowlim*.

2. Að and aš are often sounded like long English *i* in *fine*; as *ráðarc*, sight, pronounced

ry-ark; lāvār, a fork, pronounced *lyre*; *māvōm*, a breach, pronounced *mime*.

3. The termination *avō* is pronounced in Connaught nearly the same as *oo*: thus *buavāvō*, striking, is pronounced *booloo* in Connaught, but *boola* in Munster.

4. In the combination *v̄l*, the *v̄* is silent, and the whole is sounded like *l* or *ll*; as *cōv̄lāvō*, sleep, pronounced *culla*.

5. In the combination *vn*, the *n* is silent, and the whole is sounded like *l* or *ll*; as *colnā*, of a body, pronounced *culla*.

6. In the combination *v̄n*, the *v̄* is silent, and the whole is sounded the same as *n* or *nn*; as *céav̄nā*, the same, pronounced *kaina*.

7. Final *e* is never entirely silent in Irish as it is in English; thus *míne*, smoothness, is pronounced *meena*. In some situations it is very nearly silent in the modern language; as in *croīde*, a heart, pronounced *cree*.

8. There are some Irish consonants which, when they come together in a word, do not coalesce in sound, so that when they are uttered, a *very* short obscure vowel sound is heard between them.

This generally occurs in the case of two liquids, or a liquid and a mute. Thus *lɔrg*, a track, is pronounced so as to seem, to an ear accustomed to English, a word of two syllables; not *lurg* but *lurrug*. *Dealb*, a shape, is sounded, not *dalv*, but *dallav*; *searvō*, bitter, is sounded *sharrav*; *bɔrb*, proud, is pronounced *burrub*; *colg*, a sword, *cullug*, and so on. In Irish prosody, however, such words as these count as only one syllable.

In the English language no such difficulty exists in regard to most of these letters; they coalesce perfectly in sound, so that each of the above words would be a pure monosyllable.

CHAPTER II.

LETTER CHANGES.

I. ASPIRATION.

1. The term “aspiration” is used to express a certain change of sound suffered by some of the Irish consonants under certain grammatical conditions.

2. It is impossible to give a definition of aspiration that will correctly describe all the cases, inasmuch as the changes of sound vary in kind with the several consonants. In most cases the change caused by aspiration is one from an *explosive* to a *continuous* sound.

3. There are nine consonants which can be aspirated, namely, **b**, **c**, **ḋ**, **f**, **g**, **m**, **p**, **s**, **t**; these are called mutable or aspirable consonants; the others are called immutable. The aspiration is denoted either by placing a point over the consonant, as **ċ**; or by placing **h** after it, as **ch**.

4. The following are the sounds of the aspirated consonants so far as they can be represented by English letters.

5. **bh** or **ḃ** is sounded sometimes like *v* and sometimes like *w*, and it often has a sound something between both; as a **ḃeān**, his wife, pronounced *a van*; **ǵabál**, a fork, pronounced *gowal*.

6. **Ch** broad has a guttural sound which is not represented in English; but it is heard in the pronunciation of the word *lough*, Irish **loč**, a lake.

Ch slender (i.e. joined with a slender vowel) has a less guttural sound than **ċ** broad; as **míċiall**, folly, in which the **ċ** sound is only a little more guttural than **h** in *mee-heel*.

7. **Th** and **ȝ** have the same sound. When slender, they are sounded like initial *y* in English; as **ѧ ȝeān**, his love, pronounced *a yan*. **Th** and **ȝ**

broad have a guttural sound which cannot be represented by English letters, though it is something like initial *y* or initial *w*; it stands to the guttural sound of broad *c̄* in the relation of flat to hard. Both these aspirated letters are silent at the end of a word; as *fiað*, a deer, pronounced *fee-a*.

But in south Munster the final *ȝ* is fully sounded, like *g* in *fig*: as *CORCAIG* (dative of *CORCAČ*, Cork), pronounced *curkig* in Munster, but *curkee* elsewhere.

8. *Fh* is always silent; thus *A fíos*, his knowledge, is pronounced *a iss*; *An fíeadóis*, the plover, pronounced *an addoge*.

9. *Mh* is very nearly the same as *þ*, viz., like *v* or *w*; as *A mías*, his dish, pronounced *a vee-as*.

10. *Þh* has the sound of *f*, as *A þian*, his pain, pronounced *a fee-an*.

11. *Sh* and *č* are the same as *h*; as *A sál*, his heel, pronounced *a haul*; *A čobair*, his well, pronounced *a hubber*.

II. RULES FOR ASPIRATION.*

1. The possessive pronouns *mo*, my; *þo*, thy; and *ā*, his, aspirate the first consonant of the next word: as *mo þó*, my cow; *þo čeann*, thy head; *ā ȝort*, his garden.

2. The article aspirates in the singular feminine nominative and accusative;† as *An þeán*, the woman. (See also p. 18, Par. 6, and p 31.)

3. The article aspirates in the genitive singular masculine; as *An ȝuirct*, of the garden.

* These rules cannot be fully understood without a knowledge of Etymology. It must be borne in mind that they apply only to the aspirable or mutable consonants.

† Irish nouns have no inflection for the accusative (or objective) case ; but it is often convenient to speak of nouns in the accusative, by which is meant the case where the noun is the object of a transitive verb, or sometimes of a preposition.

Note.—This rule and the preceding do not apply to the letter **s**. (See also p. 18, Par. 6, and p. 31.)

4. In compound words, the initial consonant of the second word of the compound is aspirated (with a few exceptions): thus from **ceann**, a head, and **bRAT**, a garment, is formed **ceannbRAT**, head-garment or canopy. (See also p. 34, Par. 2.)

5. The interjections **A** and **O**, as signs of the vocative case, aspirate; as **A fIR**, O man.

6. An adjective agreeing with a noun has its initial consonant aspirated when the noun is nominative singular feminine, or genitive singular masculine, or vocative singular of both genders and, according to O'Donovan, in the nominative plural masculine, when the noun ends in a consonant; as **bÓ bÁn**, a white cow; **cAiT bÁin**, of a white cat; **A fIR móIR**, O great man; **A bEAN sEIM**, O mild woman; **cAPAILL bÁnA**, white horses. (**v** and **t** are sometimes excepted: see p. 34.)

7. The initial consonant of a verb is aspirated (1) in the infinitive mood by the particles **vo** and **A**; as **vo vÉANvO** or **A vÉANvO**, to do: (2), in the simple past tense, active voice; as **vo sEAS sé**, he stood: (3) by the particles **ní**, not, and **má**, if; as **ní bEIVo sI**, she will not be; **má sEASANN sé**, if he stands; (4), by the relative **A**, who, (expressed or understood); as **an tÉ A bUaileAR** the person who strikes. (See also pp. 58 and 60.)

8. The simple prepositions, with some exceptions, aspirate the initial consonants of nouns: as **AIR bÁRR**, on top; **vo mULLAC**, to a summit; **FAOI sEAN**, under affection.

III. ECLIPSIS.

1. A consonant is said to be eclipsed, or to suffer eclipsis, when its sound is suppressed, and the sound of another consonant which is prefixed to it, substituted: thus in **n-vÁn**, **v** is eclipsed by **n**

and the whole word is pronounced nawn, whereas **ðán** is pronounced *dawn*. It is only at the beginning of words that consonants are eclipsed.

2. The following eight consonants can be eclipsed:—**b**, **c**, **ð**, **f**, **g**, **p**, **s**, **t**; the others cannot. Between the eclipsing and the eclipsed letter there is usually placed a hyphen, as **m-báરð**; but often they are put together without any separating mark, as **bport**. Sometimes eclipsis is denoted by the doubling of the eclipsed letter; thus a **tتárþ** is the same as a **ð-táરþ**, their bull.

3. Each consonant has an eclipsing letter of its own.

4. **b** is eclipsed by **m**: as a **m-báરð**, their bard, pronounced a *mawrd*.

5. **C** is eclipsed by **ȝ**: as a **ȝ-coll**, their hazel, pronounced a *gowl* or a *gull*.

6. **ð** by **n**; as a **n-ðos**, their bush, pronounced a *nuss*.

7. **f** by **v** (which itself sounds like *v* or *w*); as a **v-fearann**, their land, pronounced a *varran*.

8. **g** is eclipsed by **n**. But this is not a true eclipsis, for the resulting sound is not that of **n**, but the sound of English *ng*; thus a **nȝiolla**, their servant, is pronounced *ang-illa*.

9. **p** is eclipsed by **b**; as a **b-pian**, their pain, pronounced a *bee-an*.

10. **s** is eclipsed by **t**, as in **an t-súil**, the eye, pronounced *an too-il*.

11. **t** is eclipsed by **ð**; as a **ð-táil**, their adze, pronounced a *dawl*.

IV. RULES FOR ECLIPSIS.*

1. The possessive pronouns plural—**áર**, our;

* These rules apply of course only to those consonants that can be eclipsed. The rules for eclipsis, like those for aspiration, suppose a knowledge of Etymology.

þur, your; a, their; eclipse the initial consonant of the next word; as **ÁR** **Ó-TIGEARNÁ**, our Lord; **þur** **TS-CRANN**, your tree; **a** **b-PÁIRC**, their field.*

2. The article eclipses the initial consonant of nouns in the genitive plural; as **TEAC** **NA** **M-BÁRD**, the house of the bards; **TSORT** **NA** **TS-CAPALL**, the field of the horses.

3. When a simple preposition is followed by the article and a noun in the singular number, the initial consonant of the noun is generally eclipsed as **AIR** **AN** **M-BÓRD**, on the table; **ÓN** **Ó-FARSGE**, from the sea. (See p. 31; see also Syntax.)

4. The initial consonant of a verb is eclipsed after the interrogative particles **a**, **an**, **cá**, **nac**; also after **so**, that; **muna**, unless; **iar**, after; **óá**, if; and after the relative **a** preceded by a preposition; as **a** **m-beireann** **se?** Does he bear? **an** **m-bual-eann** **tú?** Dost thou strike? **cá** **ó-fuil** **sí?** Where is she? **nac** **ó-tuisgeann** **tú?** Dost thou not understand? **so** **m-beannaigé** **DIA** **óuit**, may God bless thee; **muna** **ó-tuitfir**, unless thou shalt fall; **óá** **n-dearfainn**, if I would say; **an** **tir** **ann** **a** **ó-tainic** **siað**, the country into which they came.

5. When a noun beginning with **s** is preceded by the article, the **s** is eclipsed when the noun is nominative feminine, or genitive masculine, and generally in the dative of both genders, as **an** **TS-SAOIRSE** (fem.), the freedom; **TSORT** **AN** **TS-SAGAIRT**, the field of the priest; **AIR** **AN** **TS-SAOZAL**, or **AR** **AN** **SAOZAL**, in the world. But if the **s** is followed by **b**, **c**, **ó**, **ts**, **m**, **p**, or **ts**, it is not eclipsed; as **tsleann** **an** **smóil**, the valley of the thrush; **loç** **an** **scáil**, the lake of the champion. (See pp. 30 and 31.)

* Rules 1, 2, 3, 4, do not apply to p. See for this letter Ruie 5.

6. The following rule is usually given with the rules for eclipsis :—

When a word begins with a vowel, the letter **n** is generally prefixed in all cases where an initial consonant (except **s**) would be eclipsed; as **an-áRÁn**, their bread; **loč nA n-éAñ**, the lake of the birds.*

v. CAOL le CAOL AGUS LEATÁN le LEATÁN, OR SLENDER WITH SLENDER AND BROAD WITH BROAD.[†]

1. If a consonant or any combination of consonants comes between two vowels, they must be either both slender or both broad; thus in **solás**, light, the **o** and the **á** are both broad vowels; and in **tínnéas**, sickness, the **i** and the **e** are both slender vowels. But such combinations as **solís** and **tínnás** are not allowable, because the **o** and the **i** in the first case, and the **i** and the **á** in the second case, are one of them broad and the other slender.

2. In compliance with this rule, when two words, or a word and a syllable, are joined together, so that in the resulting word a consonant or consonantal combination would fall between two vowels, one of them broad and the other slender, then either the broad vowel must be made slender or the slender one broad, to bring them to an agreement.

3. Sometimes the broad vowel is changed to make it agree with the slender vowel; sometimes the slender vowel is made broad to agree with the broad vowel; sometimes it is the vowel before the consonant that is changed; sometimes the change is made in the vowel after the consonant. A prefix is generally changed to suit the word it is joined to, not the reverse; thus when **cóm** is prefixed to **seásam**, standing, the word is **cóimseásam**, competition, not **cóimsásam**.

* For a very detailed and clear statement of the laws of aspiration and eclipsis, see the Second Irish Book by the Society for the preservation of the Irish Language.

† This rule is very generally, but not universally, followed in the Irish language.

4. Changing a broad vowel to a slender is called in Irish *caolusáid* (i.e., making slender, from *caol*, slender), and in English attenuation; changing from slender to broad is called in Irish *leacánusáid* (i.e., making broad, from *leacán*, broad).

5. Attenuation takes place chiefly in two ways :—first by putting a slender vowel between the broad vowel and the consonant, as when *báll*, a spot, is changed to *báill*, spots; or when *fá* is postfixed to *buaíl*, and the resulting word is *buaílféá*, not *buaílfá*; secondly, by removing the broad vowel which precedes or follows the consonant, and putting a slender vowel in its place; as when *ceann*, a head, is changed to *cinn*, of a head.

6. In like manner “making broad” takes place chiefly in two ways, which are the reverse of the two preceding.

7. The following examples will illustrate the preceding rules and remarks :—

8. When the future termination *fád* is added to *buaíl*, the resulting word is not *buaílfád*, but *buaílféad*, I shall strike.

9. When the infinitive termination *að* is added to *buaíl*, the resulting word is not *buaílað* but *buaílað*.

10. When *mór*, great, is prefixed to *cion*, love, the compound is not *mórcion* but *móircion*, great love.

11. When *ceann*, head, is prefixed to *litr*, a letter, the compound is not *ceannlitr* but *cinnlitr*, a head-letter or capital letter. (This is a case of irregular attenuation.)

12. When the diminutive termination *ós* is added to *cuil*, the resulting word is not *cuitós* but *cuileós*, a fly.

13. When *e* is added to *ordóig*, a thumb, to inflect it for the genitive, the word is not *ordóigē* but *ordóigē*, of a thumb.

14. When the diminutive termination *ín* is added to *capall*, a horse, the whole word is not *capallín* but *capaillín*.

VI. SYNCOPЕ.

1. Syncope, or the omission of one or more letters from the body of a word, is very common in Irish.

2. When a short vowel occurs between a liquid (*l*, *n*, *r*, or *s*) and a mute, or between two liquids, the word is often syncopated when it is lengthened either by grammatical inflection or otherwise.

3. The syncope generally consists in the omission of the short vowel; but this change often involves others in accordance with the rule **caol le caol &c.**; and is often also accompanied by some slight consonantal changes.

4. The following examples exhibit the chief types of syncope.

5. **lánamá**, a married couple; plural **lánamána**, contracted from **lánamána**.

6. **lásair**, a flame; plural **lásrača**, contracted from **lásarača**.

7. **Focal**, a word; **foclóir**, a dictionary, contracted from **focalóir**.

8. **saiþir**, rich; comparative **saiþre**, contracted from **saiþire**.

9. **cačair**, a city; genitive **cačrač**, contracted from **cačarač**.

10. **flaičeamail**, princely; comparative **flaičeamila**, contracted from **flaičeamala**.

11. **colann**, the body, genitive **colna**, (sometimes **colla**), contracted from **colanna**.

12. **cara**, genitive **carað**: the plural is formed by adding **e** to this, which syncopates the second **a**: this would make **carðe**, which again, in accordance with the rule **caol le caol &c.**, is made **caírðe**.

13. **uasal**, noble, becomes **uaísle** in the comparative, by a process exactly similar to the last.

14. **follus**, evident, becomes **foillse** in the comparative in a similar way.

15. **abann**, a river: the plural is formed by adding **e**; this causes syncope of the second **a** and the omission of one **n**, which would make the plural **abñe**; and this again becomes **aiþne**, by the rule **caol le caol &c.**

16. **laðair**, speak (imperative mood); **laðraim**, I speak, contracted from **laðaraim**,

PART II.

ETYMOLOGY.

1. There are nine parts of speech in Irish, which are the same as those in English.

CHAPTER I.

THE ARTICLE.

I. CHANGE OF FORM IN THE ARTICLE.

1. The Irish language has one article, *an*, which has the same meaning as the English definite article *the*.

2. The article changes its form according to number, gender, and case.

3. In the singular number the article has the form *an* in all the cases except the genitive feminine, in which it becomes *ná*; as *caisleán ná círce*, the castle of the hen.

In the plural number the article is always *ná*.

4. In the spoken language the *n* of *an* is often omitted before a consonant; as *ceann a tairb*, the head of the bull. And this is sometimes found in books also, both printed and MS., but it is not to be recommended.

5. When *an* follows a preposition ending in a vowel, the *a* is often omitted in writing, but the omission is usually marked by an apostrophe; thus, *ó an tír*, from the land, is written *ón tír*; and *fá an ngréin*, under the sun, is written *fá'n ngréin*.

Very often in MSS., and sometimes in printed books, the apostrophe in such cases is omitted, and the **n** of the article joined with the preposition; as **ón tír, fán ngréin**.

6. In the plural the article (**ná**) is often joined to the preposition; as **doná**, for **do ná**.

7. The letter **s** is inserted between certain prepositions and the article **an**; and this occasionally leads to combinations that might puzzle a learner. Thus **ann an leabhar**, in the book, is written **anns an leabhar**, and **is an leabhar**, which is still further shortened to **san leabhar**: also (omitting the **n**) **annsa leabhar**, and even **sa leabhar**. And in the plural, **is na corpaibh**, “in the bodies”

II. CHANGES PRODUCED BY THE ARTICLE.

1. The article produces certain changes in the initial letters of nonns to which it is prefixed.

2. These changes are very important, and the learner will obtain a clearer view of them by separating the singular from the plural. For more on this subject, see page 31.

SINGULAR.

1. If the noun begins with an aspirable consonant (except **s, τ, ρ**), the article aspirates in the nominative feminine, and in the genitive masculine; as **an bó**, the cow; **cuan an fir móir**, the harbour of the great man.

2. If the noun begins with **s**, followed by a vowel or by **l, n, or r**, the **s** is eclipsed by **τ** in those cases where, according to the last rule, a mutable consonant would be aspirated; as **an τ-sál** (fem.), the heel; **an τ-sróin** (fem.), the nose; **luac an τ-sríain** (masc), the price of the bridle.

3. If the noun begins with a vowel, the article prefixes **τ** to the nominative masculine, and **h** to the genitive feminine; as **an τ-aċair**, the father; **leabhar na h-uīore**, the book of the dun (cow).

4. If the noun begins with an eclipsable consonant (except **ρ** or **τ**), the article *generally* eclipses, if it be preceded by a simple preposition; as **aír**

AN S-CRANN, on the tree; **ÓN B-FOCAL IBER**, “from the word ‘iber;’” **LEIR AN B-FEAR**, with the man.

5. But after the prepositions **DO** and **DE**, the article aspirates oftener than it eclipses; as **CEICRE CÉIME DO'N CRIOR**, four degrees of the zone (Keating); **DO LEANADAR A S-COSA DO'N CARRAIS**, their feet clung to the rock (story of the Children of Lir).

6. No change is produced by the article in the singular number, if the noun begins with **L, N, R, D, T**, or with **S** before a mute.

PLURAL.

1. If the noun begins with an eclipsable consonant, the article eclipses in the genitive; as **INIS NA B-FÍOÐBÁÐ**, [the] island of the woods; **CAILÍN DEAS CRÚIÐTE NA M-BÓ**, [the] pretty girl of [the] milking of the cows (i.e., the pretty milking girl).

2. If the noun begins with a vowel, the article prefixes **N** to the genitive, and **H** to the other cases; as **TÍR NA N-ÓS**, the land of the young (people); **Ó NA H-ÁITIB SIN**, from those places.

These are the only changes produced by the article in the plural.

CHAPTER II.

THE NOUN.

I. GENDER.

1. There are only two genders in the Irish language, the masculine and feminine: all Irish nouns, therefore, are either masculine or feminine gender.

2. In ancient Irish there was a neuter gender, but no trace of it remains in the modern language.

3. To know and remember the gender of all ordinary Irish nouns is one of the great difficulties in learning the language,

as it is in learning French and many other languages. Without this knowledge, which can only be mastered by practice, no one can speak or write Irish correctly.

4. There are a few general rules which will very much help the learner to distinguish the gender of nouns: they are only general rules, however, subject to many exceptions; and where they do not apply, the student must depend on practice and memory.

MASCULINE.

1. The following nouns are generally masculine:—

(1.) Names of males; as *coileac*, a cock; *laoč* a hero; *fear*, a man.

(2.) Nouns of more than one syllable, ending in a consonant, or two consonants, preceded by a broad vowel; as *voicceall*, churlishness: except (a), derivatives in *ačč*; (b), diminutives in *óš*.

(3.) Nouns ending in *oir*, *aire*, *ač*, *aioe* (or *oiøe*, or *uiøe*), when they denote personal agents, as they generally do; as *spealaoir*, a mower; *sealgaire*, a hunter; *ceictearnač*, a soldier—one of a body of *kerns*; *sgéalaioe* or *sgéuluiøe*, a story-teller.

(4.) Diminutives in *án* and abstracts in *as*; as *coileán*, a whelp; *cáirdeas*, friendship.

(5.) Diminutives in *ín* are of the same gender as the nouns from which they are derived.

FEMININE.

2. The following nouns are generally feminine:—

(1). Names of females; names of countries, rivers, and diseases; as *cearc*, a hen; *Eire*, Ireland; *bearba*, the Barrow; *pláis*, a plague.

(2). Diminutives in *óš*, and derivatives in *ačč*; as *fuiseóš*, a lark; *cumračč*, fragrance: and abstract nouns formed from the genitive feminine of adjectives; as *vaillé*, blindness.

(3). Nouns ending in a consonant, or in two consonants, preceded by a slender vowel (except those in óir); as *súil*, the eye; *fóghluim*, learning.

II. DECLENSIONS.

CASES.

1. Irish nouns have four cases, that is, four different inflections, to express relation :—Nominalive, genitive, dative, and vocative.

2. The nominative case is the same as the nominative in English.

3. The genitive is the same as what is called the possessive case in English.

4. The dative is the case where a noun is governed by a preposition.

5. The vocative case is the same as what is called the nominative of address in English.

6. Irish nouns have different forms for these four cases, and for no others. Thus, the four cases of *bRAdán*, a salmon, are for the plural number, as follows:—Nom. *bRAdáin*, as *TRí bRAdáin*, three salmons; gen. *bRAdán*, as *loc nA m-bRAdán*, the lake of the salmons; dat. *bRAdÁnaiō*, as *do na bRAdÁnaiō*, to the salmons; voc. *bRAdÁna*, as *A bRAdÁna, CA b-fuill siō ag dul?* “O ye salmons, whither are ye going ?”

7. These four cases are not always different in form; thus the four cases of the same noun in the singular number are:—Nom, *bRAdán*; gen. *bRAdáin*; dat. *bRAdÁn*; voc. *bRAdÁin*; in which it will be seen that the dative is the same as the nominative, and the vocative the same as the genitive.

8. Those cases which are alike in form are distinguished by the sense; just as the nominative and objective cases are distinguished in English.

9. Some writers on Irish grammar have put in two more cases, in imitation of Latin declension; the accusative (or, as it is called in English, the objective) and the ablative. But in Irish there are no separate inflections for them, the accusative being always the same in form as the nominative,

and the ablative the same as the dative; so that it would be only a useless puzzle to the learner to include them in a statement of Irish declension. In certain explanations, however, and in the statement of certain rules, it is sometimes convenient to speak of the accusative case.

10. Different nouns have different inflections for the same case; thus the datives singular of *cos*, a foot, and *vos*, a bush, are different, namely, *cois* and *vos*. But though this variation extends to most of the cases, the genitive singular is taken as the standard, in comparing the declension of one noun with the declension of another.

11. There are five chief ways of forming the genitive singular of Irish nouns; and in one or another of these ways, far the greatest number of nouns in the language form their genitive. There are usually reckoned, therefore, FIVE DECLENSIONS of Irish nouns.

12. Besides these there are other genitive inflections, but as no one of them comprises any considerable number of nouns, it is not considered necessary to lay down more than five declensions. The number of declensions is, however, very much a matter of convenience; and, accordingly, in some Irish grammars, there are more than five, and in some less.

FIRST DECLENSION.

1. The first declension comprises masculine nouns which have their characteristic vowel, that is, the last vowel of the nominative singular, broad.

2. The genitive singular is formed by attenuating the broad vowel.

3. In the singular, the dative is like the nominative, and the vocative is like the genitive; in the plural, the nominative is generally like the genitive singular, and the genitive like the nominative singular. Example, *báll*, a member or limb.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom.* báll.	Nom. báll.
Gen. báll.	Gen. báll.
Dat. báll.	Dat. bállaið.
Voc. Δ báll.	Voc. Δ bállá.

4. The number of nouns that belong to this declension is very large; but though they all form their genitive singular in the same way (except those in **Δč**, in which there is a slight additional change, for which see next paragraph), there are a few which vary in the formation of other cases.

5. Nouns in **Δč**, in addition to the attenuation, change **č** into **š** in the genitive singular; and generally form the nominative plural by adding **e** to the genitive singular; and from this again is formed the dative plural in **ib**, in accordance with the rule in Par. 9, page 23. Example, **MARCAČ**, a horseman.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. MARCAČ.	Nom. MARCAIŠE.
Gen. MARCAIŠ.	Gen. MARCAČ
Dat. MARCAČ.	Dat. MARCAIŠIB.
Voc. Δ MARCAIŠ.	Voc. Δ MARCAČA.

6. A few nouns make their nominative plural by an increase in **Δ**; as **peann**, a pen; plur. **peannna:** and some of these are syncopated, as **ubáll**, an apple; plur. **ublá.**

7. In a few nouns of this declension the nominative plural is formed by adding **τΔ** or **čΔ** to the nominative singular; as **reól**, a sail; nom. plur. **seóltΔ**; dat. plur. **seóltΔaið**; **múr**, a wall; nom. plur. **múrčΔ**; dat. plur. **múrčΔaið**.

8. In many words of one syllable belonging to this declension, the attenuation in the genitive singular causes considerable change in the vowel or diphthongal part of the word; thus, **corp**, body; gen. **cuirp:** **iasz**, a fish; gen. **éisz:**

*It would be well for the learner, when declining nouns, to call this “nominative and accusative” all through the declensions.

NEART, strength; gen. **NEIRT** or **NIRT**: **FEAR**, a man; gen. **FIR**: **CRANN**, a tree; gen. **CROINN**: **béal**, a mouth; gen. **béil** or **beoil**.

The three following rules (9, 10, and 11) apply to all the declensions.

9. The dative plural ends in **ib**.

This **ib** corresponds with the Latin dative and ablative termination *ibus* or *bus*. It is now very seldom pronounced, but it is nearly always retained in writing; just as in English, *gh*, which was formerly sounded as a guttural in such words as *plough*, *daughter*, is retained in writing, though it is no longer pronounced.

10. The dative plural is formed from the nominative plural whenever this latter differs from the genitive singular: otherwise from the nominative singular.

11. The vocative is always preceded by the particle **A** or **O**, which aspirates the initial; as **A FIR**, O man; **A mná**, O women; **O císearna**, O Lord.

SECOND DECLENSION.

1. The second declension comprises most of the feminine nouns in the language.

2. The genitive singular is formed by adding **e** to the nominative. If the characteristic vowel is broad, it must be attenuated in accordance with the rule **cáol le cáol &c.**

3. The dative singular is formed from the genitive singular by dropping the final **e**.

4. When the characteristic vowel is broad, the nominative plural is formed from the nominative singular by adding **a**; when the characteristic vowel is slender, by adding **e**.

5. The genitive plural is generally like the nominative singular.

6. The vocative is usually the same as the nominative, and is accordingly omitted from the paradigm.

First example, *seamróg*, a shamrock.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. <i>seamróg</i> .	Nom. <i>seomróga</i> .
Gen. <i>seamróige</i> .	Gen. <i>seamróg</i> .
Dat. <i>seamróig</i> .	Dat. <i>seamrógaib</i> .

Second example, *péist*, a worm, a beast.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. <i>péist</i> .	Nom. <i>péiste</i> .
Gen. <i>péiste</i> .	Gen. <i>péist</i> .
Dat. <i>péist</i> .	Dat. <i>péistib</i> .

7. Nouns in *āč*, when they belong to this declension, change the *č* to *ś* in the genitive singular: thus, *cláirseač*, a harp, is declined as follows:—

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. <i>cláirseač</i> .	Nom. <i>cláirseača</i> .
Gen. <i>cláirsíge</i> .	Gen. <i>cláirseač</i> .
Dat. <i>cláirsíğ</i> .	Dat. <i>cláirseačaiib</i> .

8. There are many nouns belonging to this declension which depart from the general rule laid down in Par. 4, in forming their nominative plural.

9. Some, probably over fifty, form the nominative plural by adding *anna*; and these form the genitive plural by dropping the final *ā* of this termination; thus, *cúis*, a cause; nom. plural *cúiseanna*; gen. plural, *cúiseann*; dat. plural, *cúiseannaib*.

10. Some form their nominative plural by adding *āča*: thus, *obair*, a work, and *oráid*, a prayer, make *obseáča* and *oráideáča* in the nominative plural.

11. When the characteristic vowel is slender, *i* is often dropped in the genitive plural; as *fuaim*, a sound; gen. plural *fiam*.

12. When the nominative plural takes *te*, the genitive plural is formed by adding *āð*; as *coill*, a wood; nom. plur. *coiltē*; and genitive plural as

seen in *Oileán ná g-coillteadh*, the island of the woods (Keating).

13. There are other variations of the nominative and genitive plural; but they do not comprise any considerable number of nouns, and they must be learned by practice.

THIRD DECLENSION,

1. Nouns belonging to the third declension are some of them masculine and some feminine.

2. The genitive singular is formed by adding **á** to the nominative singular.

3. The vocative is like the nominative.

4. The nominative plural is generally formed by adding **a** or **e**.

5. The genitive plural is generally like the nominative singular. Example, **cleas**, a trick or feat.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. cleas .	Nom. cleasa .
Gen. cleasa .	Gen. cleas .
Dat. cleas .	Dat. cleasaiō .

6. If the characteristic vowel is slender, it must be made broad in the genitive singular, in accordance with the rule **caol le caol &c.**; as **tóil**, the will gen. **tóla**.

7. Sometimes **c** or **č** is introduced before the **á** of the genitive singular, which commonly causes other changes by syncope; as **coṁail**, sleep; gen. **coṁalca: buaīořt**, trouble, gen. **buaīořearča**.

8. This is the case with verbal or participial nouns in **ā**, **ea**, and **uſā**, the genitives of which have the same form as their passive participles considered as verbs; and they are all commonly reckoned as belonging to this declension, though the genitive singular is formed in some by adding

e, not a; as **molad**, praising; gen. **molta**: **sínead** stretching; gen. **sínte**: **caolusgád**, making slender; gen. **caolusgáe**.

9. Nouns in **aċt** generally, and those in **eas** or **ios**, often, belong to this declension; as **clisteat**, dexterity; gen. **clisteat**: **doilegios**, sorrow; gen. **doilegiosa**. But the greater number of those in **eas** or **ios** belong to the first declension; thus the last noun, **doilegios**, is often made **doilegis** in the genitive; and **bronntanar**, a gift, makes **bronntanair**.

10. There are forty or fifty nouns (many of them ending in **is**), which form their genitive singular in **aċ**, and which are reckoned as belonging to this declension, though some writers arrange them under a separate declension; as **cačair**, a city; gen. **cačrač**: **Tearair**, Tara, gen. **Tearrač**: **gráin**, hatred; gen. **gránač**.

11. Those in **ir** generally form their genitive as above; but **ačair**, a father; **máčair**, a mother; and **bráčair**, a brother, form their genitive by dropping the final **i**:—gen. **ačar**, **máčar**, **bráčar**.

12. Outside the general rule stated in Par. 4 above, there is considerable variety in the formation of the nominative plural.

13. Those in **óir** generally make the nominative plural by adding **iðe**; as **spealadóiř**, a mower, nom. plur. **spealadóiřiðe**.

14. And these form the genitive plural variously; generally **na spealadóiřið**, but sometimes **ná spealadóiř** or **ná spealadópač**.

15. Others form the nominative plural either like the genitive singular or by adding **nna** to it; as **spuč**, a stream; gen. **spoča**; nom. pl. **spoča** or **spočanna**: **drum**, a back; gen. **droma**; nom. plur. **droma** or **dromanna**.

16. Those that add **nna**, form the genitive plural by omitting the **a**; as **sruč**; gen. plur. **sručann**.

17. Many nouns of this declension that end in **n** or **l**, form their plural by adding **te** or **ta**; as **món**, a bog; gen. sing, **móna**; nom. plur. **móntē**.

18. And these generally form their genitive plural by adding **ao** to the nominative plural; as **món**; gen. plur. **mónteaō**.

19. Those that form their genitive singular in **ac** (10) form the plural by adding **a** to this **ac**: as **lasair**, a flame; gen. sing, **lasrač**; nom. plur. **lasrača**.

FOURTH DECLENSION.

1. Nouns of the fourth declension end in vowels or in **ín**, and are some of them masculine and some feminine.

2. There is no inflection in the singular, all the cases being alike.

3. The nominative plural is generally formed by adding **roe** or **aoa** (with occasionally an obvious vowel change). Example, **áirne**, a sloe.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. áirne .	Nom. áirnroe .
Gen. áirne .	Gen. áirneaō .
Dat. áirne .	Dat. áirnroib .

4. Some form the plural by adding **te** or **ce**: as **teinne**, a fire; nom. plur. **teinnte**; **baoi**, a clown; nom. plur. **baoiche**; and **aične**, a commandment, has nom. plur. **aičeanta**.

5. These generally form the genitive plural, by adding **o** or **ao** (not to the nominative singular, as in the model, but) to the nominative plural: as nom. plur. **baoiche**, clowns; gen. plur. **baoicheao**.

6. Nouns ending in **aiðe**, **uiðe**, and **aire**, generally belong to this declension; as **sclábhuiðe**, a slave; **píobaire**, a piper.

FIFTH DECLENSION.

1. Nouns of the fifth declension are mostly feminine.

2. They generally end in a vowel; and they form their genitive by adding **n** or **nn**, and occasionally **o** or **t**.

3. The dative singular is formed from the genitive by attenuation.

4. The nominative plural is formed from the genitive singular by adding **a**.

5. The genitive plural is like the genitive singular.

Example, **URSA**, a door jamb.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. URSA .	Nom. URSANA .
Gen. URSAN .	Gen. URSAN .
Dat. URSAIN .	Dat. URSANAIb.

6. To this declension belong the proper names **EIRE**, Ireland; gen. **EIREANN**, dat. **EIRINN**: **ALBA**, Scotland; gen., **ALBAN**, dat. **ALBAIN**: **MUMA**, Munster; gen. **MUMAN**, dat. **MUMAIN**; and several others of less note.

7. **CARA**, a friend, is an example of the genitive in **o**: nom. **CARA**; gen. **CARAO**; dat. **CARAIO**; nom. plur. **CÁRDE**.

8. There is a good deal of variety in the formation of the cases of nouns belonging to this declension, which can only be learned by practice.*

IRREGULAR DECLENSION.

1. Some nouns are irregular; that is, they are not inflected in accordance with any of the regular declensions.

2. The most important of the irregular nouns are :*—**BEAN**, a woman; **BO**, a cow; **BRÚ**, a womb;

* For additional examples of declensions of nouns, both regular and irregular, see Appendix at the end of the book.

CAORA, a sheep; **ceó**, a fog; **cnó**, a hut; **cú**, a hound; **DIÁ**, God; **lÁ**, a day; **mí**, a month; **o** or **uA**, a grandson. They are declined as follows. (The vocative is not given where it is like the nominative.)

béan, *a woman, fem.*

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. béan .	Nom. mná .
Gen. mná .	Gen. béan .
Dat. mnáoi .	Dat. mnáiib .

bó, *a cow, fem.*

Nom. bó .	Nom. bá .
Gen. bó .	Gen. bó .
Dat. buiñ .	Dat. búaiib .

brú, *a womb, fem.*

Nom. brú .	Nom. bronna .
Gen. brumne or bronn .	Gen. bronn .
Dat. broinn .	Dat. bronnaib .

CAORA, *a sheep, fem.*

Nom. CAORA .	Nom. CAOIRIS ,
Gen. CAORAC .	Gen. CAORAC .
Dat. CAORA .	Dat. CAORCAIB .
Voc. A CAORA .	Voc. A CAORCA .

Ceó, *a fog, masc.*

Nom. ceó .	Nom. cíao .
Gen. cíac or ceoic .	Gen. ceó .
Dat. ceó .	Dat. ceócaib .

Cnó or **cnú**, *a nut, masc.*

Nom. cnó .	Nom. cná , cnai .
Gen. cnó , cnui .	Gen. cnó .
Dat. cnó , cnú .	Dat. cnáiib .

Cú, *a hound, masc, or fem.*

Nom. cú .	Nom. coin, cuin, cona, or coince.
Gen. con.	Gen. con.
Dat. coin.	Dat. conaiō.

Óia, *God, masc.*

Nom. Óia.	Nom. Óée, Óéicē.
Gen. Óé.	Gen. Óia, Óéicēaō.
Dat. Óia.	Dat. Óéiō, Óéicēiō.
Voc. A Óhé or A Óhia.	Voc. A Óhee, Óhéicē.

lá, *a day, masc.*

Nom. lá.	Nom. læcē.
Gen. læe.	Gen. læcēaō, lá.
Dat. lá, ló.	Dat. læcēiō.

mí, *a month, fem.*

Nom. mí.	Nom. míosa.
Gen. mís, míosa.	Gen. míos.
Dat. mí, mís.	Dat. míosaiō.

o or ua, *a grandson, masc.*

Nom. ó, ua.	Nom. uí.
Gen. i, uí.	Gen. ua.
Dat. o, ua.	Dat. iō, uiō.
Voc. A, uí.	Voc. A, ui.

DECLENSION OF THE ARTICLE WITH THE NOUN.

1. The initial changes produced by the article in the nouns to which it is prefixed have been set forth at page 17 ; these changes must be carefully observed in declining nouns with the article.

2. Twelve typical examples are here given, corresponding with the several cases mentioned in paragraphs 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6, pages 17, 18; and these examples include almost every possible variety. There is a good deal of difference of usage in the dative singular of nouns beginning with *s*.

3. The declension of the singular number only is given; the changes in the plural are so very simple (see page 18) that they can present no difficulty.

4. *Colȝ*, a sword, masc. Nom. *an colȝ*; gen. *an ȝuileȝ*; dat. *leis an ȝ-colȝ* (Par. 4, p. 17), or *þo'n colȝ* (Par. 5, p. 18).

5. *Cailleac*, a hag, fem. Nom. *an ȝailleac*; gen. *na caillise*; dat. *ó'n ȝ-caillise* or *þo'n ȝailleac*.

6. *Saoȝal*, the world, masc. Nom. *an saoȝal*; gen. *an τ-saoȝal*; dat. *ó'n saoȝal* or *þo'n τ-saoȝal* (Par. 5, p. 18).

7. *Sabóir*, the Sabbath, fem. Nom. *an τ-Sabóir*; gen. *na Sabóire*; dat. *ó'n Sabóir* or *þo'n τ-Sabóir* (Pars. 2 and 5, pp. 17 and 18.)

8. *Slæt*, a rod, fem. Nom. *an τ-slæt*; gen. *na slæte*; dat. *leis an slæt* or *þo'n τ-slæt*.

9. *Sról*, satin, masc. Nom. *an sról*; gen. *an τ-sról*; dat. *ó'n sról* or *þo'n τ-sról*.

10. *Asal*, an ass, masc. Nom. *an τ-asal*; gen. *an asail*; dat. *ó'n asal*.

11. *Inis*, an island, fem. Nom. *an inis*; gen. *na h-inse*; dat. *þo'n inis*.

12. *Leac*, a stone, fem. Nom. *an leac*; gen. *na leice*; dat. *þo'n leic* (Par. 6, p. 18).

13. *Óile*, a deluge, fem. Nom. *an óile*; gen. *na óileann*; dat. *þo'n óilinn*.

14. *Sȝeul*, a story, masc. Nom. *an sȝeul*; gen. *an sȝéil*; dat. *ó'n sȝeul*.

15. *Speal*, a scythe, fem. Nom. *an speal*; gen. *na speile*; dat. *leis an speil*.

CHAPTER III.
THE ADJECTIVE,

I. DECLENSION OF ADJECTIVES.

1. In Irish the adjective changes its form according to the gender, case, and number of the noun.

2. Adjectives are declined in much the same manner as nouns; but they never take the inflection *ib* in the dative plural (though anciently they had this inflection like nouns): the dative plural of an adjective is like the nominative plural.

3. There are usually reckoned four declensions of adjectives.

4. The inflections of these four declensions follow those of the noun so closely, that when the noun is mastered the adjective presents no difficulty.

FIRST DECLENSION.

1. Adjectives of the first declension are those that end in a consonant preceded by a broad vowel, as *bán*, white; *fliuc*, wet.

2. In the masculine gender (i.e., when the adjective belongs to a masculine noun), they are declined the same as nouns of the first declension of the type of *ball*, except that the nominative plural always ends in *a*.

3. In the feminine gender adjectives are declined the same as nouns of the second declension of the type of *seamróg*.

4. Both genders are alike in the plural. Example, *bán*, white.

Singular,		Plural.
Masc.	Fem.	Masc. and Fem.
Nom. bán.	bán.	Nom. bána.
Gen. bám.	báme.	Gen. bán.
Dat. bán.	bám.	Dat. bána.
Voc. bám.	bán.	Voc. bána.

SECOND DECLENSION.

1. Adjectives of the second declension are those that end in a consonant preceded by a slender vowel.

2. In the singular, all the cases of both masculine and feminine are alike, except the genitive feminine, which takes e.

3. In the plural, both genders are alike, and all the cases except the genitive are formed by adding e; the genitive is like the nominative singular.

Example, míñ, smooth, fine.

Singular.		Plural.
Masc.	Fem.	Masc. and Fern.
Nom. míñ.	míñ.	Nom. míne.
Gen. míñ.	míne.	Gen. míñ.
Dat. míñ.	míñ	Dat. míne.
Voc. míñ.	míñ.	Voc. míne.

THIRD DECLENSION.

1. Adjectives of the third declension are those that end in *āmāil*, which has the same signification as the English postfix *like*:—*bēan*, a woman *bānaāmāil*, womanlike, modest.

2. The two genders are always alike.

3. The four cases singular are alike except the genitive, which is formed by adding a, with a syncope.

4. In the plural, the genitive is the same as the nominative singular; and the other cases are the same as the genitive singular. Example, *māise-āmāil*, graceful.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. máiseamhail.	Nom. máiseamhla.
Gen. máiseamhla.	Gen. máiseamhail.
Dat. máiseamhail.	Dat. máiseamhla.

FOURTH DECLENSION.

1. Adjectives of the fourth declension are those that end in vowels; as **mórða**, majestic.

2. They have no inflections, being alike in all cases, numbers, and genders.

II. DECLENSION OF THE ADJECTIVE AND ARTICLE

WITH THE NOUN.

1. The rules for the aspiration of the initial consonants of adjectives agreeing with nouns are given at p. 10; and these rules must be very carefully observed in declining nouns with adjectives.

2. It maybe added here that **v** and **c** sometimes resist aspiration, especially if they follow a noun ending in **n**. There is much variety of usage as to aspiration of adjectives in the dative singular.

3. When a noun is declined with both an adjective and the article, the initial of the adjective is generally eclipsed in the genitive plural (or takes **n** if it be a vowel).

4. Four typical examples are here given of the declension of the adjective with the noun. For the influence of the article see p. 17.

An capall bán, *the white horse, masc.*

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. an capall bán.	na capaill bána.
Gen. an capaill báin.	na ȝ-capall m-bán.
Dat. ó'n ȝ-capall bán or m-bán.	ó'na capallaib bána
Voc. a ȝcapaill báin.	a ȝcapalla bána.

An fúiseógs beag, *the little lark, fem.*

- | | | |
|------|--------------------------|-------------------------|
| Nom. | An fúiseógs beag. | ná fúiseógsa beaga. |
| Gen. | ná fúiseóige bígé. | ná ó-fúiseógs m-beag. |
| Dat. | ó'n ó-fúiseoig bíg. | ó'na fúiseógsaib beaga. |
| Voc. | A fúiseógs beag. | A fúiseógsa beaga. |

An cnoc Árð, *the high hill, masc.*

- | | | |
|------|----------------------|-------------------------|
| Nom. | An cnoc Árð. | Nom. ná cnuic Árða. |
| Gen. | An cnuic Árð. | Gen. ná g-cnoc n-Árð. |
| Dat. | o'n g-cnoc Árð. | Dat. ó'na cnocaiò Árða. |
| Voc. | A cnuic Árð. | Voc. A cnoca Árða. |

An bó duib, *the black cow, fem.*

- | | | |
|------|--------------------|------------------------|
| Nom. | An bó duib. | Nom. ná bá duib. |
| Gen. | ná bó duibé. | Gen. ná m-bó n-duib. |
| Dat. | do'n m-buin duib. | Dat. do ná búaiò duib. |
| Voc. | A do duib. | Voc. A bá duib. |

III. COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

1. Irish, adjectives have three degrees of comparison, the same as English adjectives.

2. The positive is the simple form of the adjective; as Árð, high; fílaíteamhail, princely.

3. The comparative and the superlative have the same form, which is that of the genitive singular feminine; as Árðe, fílaíteamhla; and they are distinguished by prefixed particles, or by the context.

4. The comparative has generally the particle níos (or níosa or nísia) prefixed, and it is usually followed by ná, than (spelled also iná and ioná); as tá an teac so níos Árðe ná an teac sin,

this house is higher than that house: *ATÁ AN LÁOČ ÚO NÍOS FLAÍČEAMLA NÁ AN RÍS FÉIN*, “yonder champion is more princely than the king himself.”

5. The superlative is often preceded by *is* or *as*, with the article expressed before the noun; as *AN FEAR IS FLAÍČEAMLA SAN TÍR*, the most princely man in the country.

6. In the comparative, *níos* is omitted when the assertion or question is made by the verb *is* in any of its forms, expressed or understood; as *BA ÓUIBE A SGUAS NÁ AN SGUAL*, “her hair was blacker than the coal;” *IS GILE SNEACHTA NÁ BAÍNNE*, snow is whiter than milk; *AN FEÁRR DO ÓEARBRAČAIR NÁ ČÚSA?* is thy brother better than thou?

7. When the characteristic particles are not expressed, the construction generally determines whether the adjective is comparative or superlative; as *AN EALADÓAN IS UASLE NÁ FILIOEACT*, the art which is nobler than poetry; *AN EALADÓAN IS UASLE AIR BÍC*, “the art which is the noblest in the world.”

8. An adjective in the comparative or superlative is not inflected; all the cases being alike in form.

IRREGULAR COMPARISON.

1. The following adjectives are irregularly compared. There are a few others, but their departure from rule is so slight as not to require notice.

2. *LÍA* is a comparative as it stands, signifying more (in number); but it has no positive, unless *iomða* or *mórán* (many), or some such word, be considered as such.

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
beas, little.	níos luža.	is luža.
fao, long.	níos faiðe, níos sia.	is faiðe, is sia.
furus or urus, easy.	níos fusa, níos usa.	is fusa, is usa.
maič, veas, }good.	níos feárr.	is feárr.
minic, often.	níos mionca.	
mór, great.	níos mó.	is mó.
olc, bad.	níos meara.	is meara.
teit, hot.	níos teó.	is teó.

3. There are certain particles which, when prefixed to adjectives, intensify their significance; and in accordance with the rule in Par. 4, page 10, they aspirate the initials of the adjectives.

4. The principal of these are an, fíos, ró, sár, ús: as maič, good; an-maič, very good; gráonna, ugly; fíos-gráonna, excessively ugly; mór, large; ró-mór, very large: láior, strong; sár-láior, very strong, &c.

IV. NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

1. The following is a list of the most important of the numerals, both cardinal and ordinal.

For the influence of some of them in aspirating and eclipsing, and for other syntactical influences on the noun, see Syntax.

Cardinal.		Ordinal.	
1.	an.	1st.	cead.
2.	vó, vá.	2nd.	vára.
3.	tri. téora.	3rd.	treas.
4.	ceatáir, ceitre.	4th.	ceatramá.
5.	cúig.	5th.	cúigead.
6.	sé.	6th.	seisead.
7.	seacht	7th.	seachtma.
8.	ocht	8th.	ochtma.
9.	náoi.	9th.	náomá.
10.	deic.	10th.	deacma.
11.	an vás.	11th.	anmá vás.

12.	ꝑÓ ꝑÉAS, ꝑÁ ꝑÉAS.	12th.	ꝑARA ꝑÉAS.
13.	ꝑRÍ ꝑÉAS.	13th.	ꝑREAS ꝑÉAS.
	And so on, up to and including 19.		
20.	ꝑÍCÉ.	20th.	ꝑÍCÉAÐ.
21.	{ AON A's ꝑÍCÉ, AON AIR ꝑÍCÍÐ.	21st.	{ AONMÁÐ AIR ꝑÍCÍÐ.
	And so on, up to 29.		
30.	{ ꝑRIOČAÐ, ꝑRIOČA, ꝑEIČ A's ꝑÍCÉ.	30th.	{ ꝑRIOČAÐAÐ, ꝑEACMÁÐ AIR ꝑÍCÍÐ.
33.	{ ꝑRÍ AIR ꝑRIOČAÐ, ꝑRÍ ꝑÉAS A's ꝑÍCÉ.	33rd.	{ ꝑREAS AIR ꝑRIO- ČAÐ, ꝑREAS ꝑÉAS AIR ꝑÍCÍÐ.
40.	{ ꝑÁ ꝑÍCÍÐ, CEAČ- RAČA, CEAČRA- ČAÐ.	40th.	CEAČRAČAÐAÐ.
50.	CAO᷇A, CAO᷇AÐ.	50th.	CAO᷇AÐAÐ.
60.	{ SEAS᷇AÐ, SEAS᷇A, ꝑRÍ ꝑÍCÍÐ.	60th.	{ SEAS᷇AÐAÐ, ꝑRÍ ꝑÍCÍÐAÐ.
70.	{ SEAČTMO᷇A, SEAČT- MO᷇AÐ, ꝑEAC A's ꝑRÍ ꝑÍCÍÐ.	70th.	{ SEAČTMO᷇AÐAÐ, ꝑEACMÁÐ AIR ꝑRÍ ꝑÍCÍÐ.
80.	{ OČTMO᷇A, OČT- MO᷇AÐ, CEIČRE ꝑÍCÍÐ.	80th.	{ OČTMO᷇AÐAÐ, CEIČRE ꝑÍCÍÐ- EAÐ.
90.	{ NO᷇A, NO᷇AÐ, ꝑEIČ A's CEIČRE ꝑÍCÍÐ.	90th.	{ NO᷇AÐAÐ, ꝑEAC- MÁÐ AIR CEIČ- RE ꝑÍCÍÐ.
100.	CÉAÐ.	100th.	CÉAÐAÐ.
1,000.	míle.	1,000th.	míleAÐ.
2,000.	ꝑÁ míle.	2,000th.	ꝑÁ míleAÐ.
1,000,000.	milliún.	1,000,000th.	milliúnaÐ.

2. ꝑÓ and CEAČAIR are used only in the absence of nouns, i.e. merely as the names of the numbers; but ꝑÁ and CEIČRE are always used when the nouns are expressed; as ꝑÁ āluAIR, two ears; CEIČRE FIR, four men.

3. ꝑÍCÉ is declined:—Nom. ꝑÍCÉ; gen. ꝑÍCÉAÐ; dat. ꝑÍCÍÐ; nom. plur. ꝑÍCÍÐ.

4. CÉAÐ has gen. CÉAÐ; nom. pl. CÉAÐA or CÉAÐA.

5. The following nouns, which are all except

beirt, formed from the numerals, are applied to persons only :—

τÍAS, τÍS,	two persons.	seac̄tar,	} seven persons
beirt,	a couple.	mós-seisear,	
triúr,	three persons.	octrar,	eight "
ceac̄tar,	four ,	nonbár,	nine ,
cúigear,	five ,	naonbár,	ten ,
seisear,	six ,	deic̄neabár,	

CHAPTER IV.

THE PRONOUN.

1. There are in Irish six kinds of pronouns :— Personal, Possessive, Relative, Demonstrative, Interrogative, and Indefinite.

I. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

1. There are four personal pronouns—mé, I; tú, thou; sé, he; sí, she; with their plurals, sinn, we; síb, ye or you; and siab, they. These are the simple forms of the personal pronouns.

2. Each of these takes an emphatic increase or postfixed syllable, equivalent to the English word *self*; and the whole word thus formed is called the emphatic form. The emphatic syllables vary their vowel part in accordance with the rule caol le caol &c.

3. The following are the emphatic forms:— misé or mesí, myself; túsa, thyself; sésean,

himself; sise, herself; sinne, ourselves; siöre, yourselves; siadsan themselves.

4. The word féin, self, is often added to the personal pronouns, not as a particle but as a separate word; and it is still more emphatic than the particles mentioned in last paragraph:— mé féin, I myself; sí féin, she herself.

5. The personal pronouns are all declined ; and they may carry the emphatic increase through all the cases.

6. The personal pronouns (except mé), unlike nouns, have a distinct form for the accusative (or objective) case. It is, of course, only the pronoun čú that is used in the vocative.

DECLENSION OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

The declension of the emphatic form of mé is given as an example: observe, in this, the vowel changes in obedience to caol le caol &c.

Mé, I.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. mé, I.	Nom. sinn, we.
Gen. mo, mine.	Gen. ár, our.
Dat. dom, dám, to me.	Dat. búinn, to us.
Acc. mé, me.	Acc. inn or sinn, us.

Mise, myself (emphatic form).

Nom. mise, mesi, myself.	Nom. sinne, ourselves.
Gen. mo-sa, my own.	Gen. ár-ne, our own.
Dat. domsa, dám̄sa, to my-self.	Dat. búinne, to ourselves.
Acc. mise, mesi, myself.	Acc. inne, sinne, ourselves.

Tú, thou.

Nom. tú.	Nom. siö.
Gen. do.	Gen. þur, þar.
Dat. duit.	Dat. daois, díö.
Acc. čú.	Acc. iö, siö.
Voc. čú.	Voc. siö, iö.

sé, he.

Nom. sé.	Nom. síao.
Gen. á.	Gen. á.
Dat. do.	Dat. dóib.
Acc. é.	Acc. iau.

sí, she.

Nom. sí.	Nom. síao.
Gen. á.	Gen. á.
Dat. di.	Dat. dóib.
Acc. í.	Acc. iau.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS COMPOUNDED WITH PREPOSITIONS.

1. In Irish, the personal and the possessive pronouns unite with prepositions, each compound forming a single word.
2. In each case the preposition and the pronoun are amalgamated, and the latter changes its form, so as to be considerably, and in some cases completely, disguised.

3. These “prepositional pronouns,” as they are sometimes called, are of constant occurrence in the language—scarce a sentence in which they are not met with: they are therefore of great importance, and the learner should get them all off by heart.

4. The following prepositions unite with personal pronouns:—**aS**; **AIR** or **AR**; **ANN** or **I**; **AS**; **cum**; **de**; **do**; **eiríR** or **iRíR**; **fá** or **faoi**; **le**; **o** or **ua**; **roimh**; **seac**; **tar**; **tré**; **uar**; **um** or **im**.

5. The following are the combinations of these prepositions with the personal pronouns.

6. The emphatic particles may be used with these combinations also, as well as with the un compounded pronouns, of which one example is given.

A᷇, at or with.

Singular.	Plural.
Α᷇Α᷇M, with or at me.	Α᷇Α᷇INN, with us.
Α᷇Α᷇T, agab, with thee.	Α᷇Α᷇IB, with you.
Α᷇E, with him.	Α᷇A or Α᷇U, with them.
Α᷇ICE or Α᷇ICI, with her.	

The same with the emphatic increase.

Α᷇Α᷇MSA, with myself.	Α᷇Α᷇INNE, with ourselves.
Α᷇Α᷇TSΑ, with th self.	Α᷇Α᷇IBSE, with ourselves.
Α᷇ESEAN, with himself.	Α᷇ASAN, with themselves.
Α᷇ICSE, with herself.	

A᷇R or A᷇R, upon.

ORM, on me.	ORRAINN, on us.
ORT, on thee.	ARRAIB, on you.
A᷇R, on him.	ORRA, ORΤΑ, on them.
UIRRE, on her.	

A᷇n or i, in.

ΙONNAM, in me.	ΙONNAINN, ΙONAIINN, in us.
ΙONNAT, ΙONNAO, in thee.	ΙONNAIB, in you.
Α᷇n, in him.	ΙONNTA, in them.
ΙNNTE, ΙNNTI, in her.	

A᷇s, out of.

Α᷇AM, out of me.	Α᷇AINN, out of us.
Α᷇AT, Α᷇AO, out of thee.	Α᷇AIB, out of you.
Α᷇S, out of him.	Α᷇STA, Α᷇STU, out of them.
Α᷇ISTE, Α᷇ISTI, out of her.	

Ćum, towards, unto.

ĆU᷇AM, unto me.	ĆU᷇AINN, unto us.
ĆU᷇AT, unto thee.	ĆU᷇AIB, unto you.
ĆU᷇E, unto him.	ĆU᷇A, unto them.
ĆU᷇ICI, unto her.	

Ωe, from or off.

Ω᷇OM, off or of me.	Ω᷇INN, off us.
Ω᷇OT, off thee.	Ω᷇IB, off you.
Ωe, off him.	Ω᷇IOB, off them.
ΩI, off her.	

O, *to.*

óam, óom, óam, to me.
óuit, to thee.
óo, to him.
ói, to her.

óinn, to us.
óaoib, óib, to you.
óíb, to them,

EIR, *between.*

eáoram, between me.
eárat, between thee.
eir é, between him.
eir i, between her.

eárainn, between us.
eáraiib, between you.
eatorra, between them,

FÁ or FAOI, *under.*

fúm, under me.
fút, under thee,
faoi, under him.
fúche, under her.

fúnn, under us.
fúib, under you.
fúca, under them.

LE, *with.*

liom, with me.
leat, with thee.
leis, with him.
léche, léi, with her.

linn, with us.
liö, with you.
leo, with them.

le is often written **re** in books, and its pronominal combinations in this form are often met with. They are as follows:—

riom, with me.
riot, with thee.
ris, with him.
ria, with her.

rinn, with us.
riö, with you.
riu, with them,

O or ua, *from.*

uaím, from me.
uaít, from thee.
uaö, from him.
uaiche, uaiti, from her.

uainn, from us.
uaib, from you.
uaça, from them,

ROIM, *before.*

rómam, before me.
rómät, before thee.
róime, before him.
róimpe, róimpi, before her.

rómáinn, before us
rómáiib, before you.
rómäa, before them.

Seac, beside.

<i>seacam</i> , beside me.	<i>seacainn</i> , beside us.
<i>seacat</i> , beside thee.	<i>seacaiō</i> , beside you.
<i>seac é</i> , beside him.	<i>seacā</i> , beside them,
<i>seac í</i> , beside her.	

Tar, beyond, over.

<i>tarom</i> , <i>tarom</i> , over me.	<i>tarrainn</i> , <i>tarrainn</i> , over us.
<i>tart</i> , <i>tart</i> , over thee.	<i>tarraiō</i> , <i>tarraiō</i> , over you.
<i>taris</i> , over him.	<i>tarcta</i> , <i>tarcta</i> , over them,
<i>tarste</i> , <i>tarsti</i> , over her.	

Tre, through.

<i>tríom</i> , through me.	<i>trínn</i> , through us.
<i>tríot</i> , through thee.	<i>tríō</i> , through you.
<i>tríō</i> , through him.	<i>tríocā</i> , through them,
<i>tríče</i> , <i>tríči</i> , through her.	

Uas, above.

<i>uasam</i> , above me.	<i>uasainn</i> , above us.
<i>uasac</i> , above thee.	<i>uasaiō</i> , above you.
<i>uasa</i> , above him.	<i>uasta</i> , above them,
<i>uastē</i> , <i>uasti</i> , above her.	

Um or im, about.

<i>umam</i> , about me.	<i>umainn</i> , about us.
<i>umat</i> , about thee.	<i>umaiō</i> , about you.
<i>ume</i> , about him.	<i>umpa</i> , about them,
<i>umpe</i> , <i>uimpi</i> , about her.	

II. POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

1. The possessive pronouns, which are merely the genitives of the personal pronouns, are as follows:—*mo*, my; *vo*, thy; *a*, his or her; *ár*, our; *bár* or *bur*, your; *á*, their. The three possessives, *a*, his, *a*, her, and *á*, their, are distinguished by the initial letter changes of the next word. (See pp. 9, 11, 12; and see also Syntax.)

2. The *o* of *mo* and *vo* is omitted before a vowel or before *f*; as *m'ATCAIR*, my father; *m'FEARANN*, my land. And *vo* is often changed, before a vowel, to *t*, *č*, and *h*; as *t'ATCAIR*, *č'ATCAIR*, or *h-ATCAIR*, thy father.

3. The possessive pronouns also take the emphatic increase, with this peculiarity, however, that the emphatic particle always follows the noun that comes after the possessive, or if the noun be qualified by one or more adjectives, the emphatic particle comes last of all; and in accordance with the rule *CAOL LE CAOL*, its vowel is generally broad or slender according as the last vowel of the word it follows is broad or slender; as *mo čEAC-sA*, my house, or my own house; *mo čEAC MÓR buiōe-sI*, my great yellow house. And these again may be followed by *féin* (Par. 4, p. 40), rendering the expression still more emphatic; as *mo čEAC-sA féin*, my own house.

POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS COMPOUNDED WITH PREPOSITIONS.

1. The possessive pronouns are amalgamated with prepositions, much in the same way as the personal pronouns; as *beIR bEANNACT óM ČROIÖE*, bear a blessing *from my heart*.

2. The following are the most important of these combinations:—

Ann, in.

Singular.	Plural,
<i>AM, AM'</i> , in my.	<i>MÁR, 'NÁR</i> , in our.
<i>AO, AB'</i> , in thy.	—
<i>IONA, INA, 'NA</i> , in his or her.	<i>IONA, INA, 'NA</i> , in their.

Vo, to.

<i>VOM, VOM'</i> , to my.	<i>VÁR, V'ÁR</i> , to our.
<i>VOD, VOD'</i> , to thy.	—
<i>OA, OA</i> , to his or her.	<i>OA, O'A</i> , to their.

le, with.

lēm, lēm', with my.

lēr, lē'r, with our

lēv, lēv', with thy.

—

lēnā, lē n-ā, with his or her. lēnā, lē n-ā, with their.

Ó or ua from.

óm, óm', from my.

oár, ó'r, from our.

óv, óv', from thy.

—

ónā, ó n-ā, from his or her. ónā, ó n-ā, from their.

3. Those that are identical in form and different in meaning are distinguished by the initial letter changes they produce in the next word; as ónā ḡi᷑, from his house; ónā ṭi᷑, from her house; ónā ṽ-ṭi᷑, from their house.

4. These combinations can also take the emphatic increase, like those of the personal pronouns, with the peculiarity, however, noticed in Par. 3, p. 45; as óm ḡi᷑ móR áRv-o-sā, from my great high house.

III. RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. There are three relative pronouns in Irish :—
a, who, which, that; noċ, who, which, that;
nāċ, which not; as an tē a ḫuaileas, the person
who strikes; an liai᷑ noċ a ṽeir go ḫ-fuil tú
slán, the physician that says that you are well;
an tē nāċ ḫ-fuil lái᷑ir, ní fuláir vó ḫeic glic,
“the person who is not strong, it is necessary for
him to be wise.”

2. VÁ sometimes takes the place of the relative
a; and in some grammars it is counted as a dis-
tinct relative pronoun; as tái᷑ na gaoilte is
feárr agum vá ḫ-fuil a ḫ-talaṁ Eireann, “I have

the best friends *that are* (to be found) in the land of Erin." And sometimes **so** stands for the relative **a**.

3. The relative **a** has sometimes the sense of "all which" or "all that;" as **beir beannacht cum a maireann de siolraic Ir a's Eibir**, "bear a blessing to all that live of the seed of Ir and Eber;" **a b-fuil san talam o'aicme Mhaine**, "all that are in the land of the tribe of Máinè."

4. The relative pronouns are not declined.

IV. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. The demonstrative pronouns are **so**, this, these; **sín**, that, those; **súd** or **úd**, yonder: as **an fear so**, this man; **na mná sín**, those women; **súd í síos**, "yonder she (moves) below."

V. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. There are usually reckoned three interrogative pronouns:—**cíA** or **cé**, who? **cá**, what? where? **cád** or **creud**, what? as **cíA crutuigz tú?** who created thee? **cád deir tú?** what sayest thou? **cá b-fuil an fear sín?** where is that man? **creud is eigin?** what is necessary?

VI. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

1. The following are the principal indefinite pronouns:—

aon, one.

ceactar, either.

éigin, some, certain.

uile, all.

eile, **oile**, other.

a céile, each other.

cád, all.

an té, **an tí**, the person who.

gád, each, every.

cíA b'é, **cibé**, **gibé**, whoever.

gád uile, every.

2. The indefinite pronouns are not declined; except *cáċ*, which has a genitive form, *cáic*; and *ȝáċ*, which is sometimes made *ȝáċa* in the genitive.

CHAPTER V.

THE VERB.

1. Irish verbs are inflected for number, person, mood, tense, and voice.

2. The conjugation is arranged, not according to the initial changes, but according to terminations.

3. As to the initial changes :—see pages 10 and 58 for the particles that aspirate, and page 12 for the particles that eclipse, the initials of verbs.

I. PERSONS: SYNTHETIC AND ANALYTIC FORMS.

1. The verb has three persons singular and three persons plural; and it has inflections for the whole six in the indicative and conditional moods of the active voice, except in one tense of the indicative.

2. The six forms of the present tense, indicative mood, active voice, of the verb *tóȝ*, take, are as follows:—

Singular.	Plural.
1. <i>tóȝaim</i> , I take.	1. <i>tóȝamaor</i> , we take.
2. <i>tóȝair</i> , thou takest.	2. <i>tóȝċaoi</i> , ye take.
3. <i>tóȝaið sé</i> , he takes.	3. <i>tóȝaið</i> , they take.

3. This is what is called the synthetic form of the verb. The synthetic form is that in which the persons are expressed by inflections or terminations.

4. These six forms express the sense perfectly, without the accompaniment of the pronouns (except in the case of the third person singular): that is, *τόσαιρ*, as it stands, without using along with it the pronoun *τú*, thou, expresses perfectly “thou takest;” and so of the others.

5. But there is another way of expressing the persons, singular and plural, namely, by using one form of the verb for the whole six, and putting in the pronouns to distinguish the persons and numbers. This is what is called the analytic form of the verb.

6. In this analytic mode of expressing the persons and numbers, the form of the verb that is used is the same as the form for the third person singular; and the persons singular and plural are expressed as follows:—

Singular.	Plural.
1. <i>τόσαιρό mé</i> , I take.	1. <i>τόσαιρό sinn</i> , we take.
2. <i>τόσαιρό tú</i> , thou takest.	2. <i>τόσαιρό sib</i> , ye take.
3. <i>τόσαιρό sé</i> , he takes.	3. <i>τόσαιρό siað</i> , they take.

7. The third singular of the verb is not a synthetic form like the other five, that is, it does not include the pronoun as they do. In the third person singular, therefore, the pronoun must be always expressed in order to distinguish the number and person; unless there is a noun, or that the nominative is in some other way obvious from the construction.

8. But generally speaking it is not allowable to express any other pronoun along with the corresponding synthetic form of the verb:—For

example, it would be wrong to say *doéanaim mé* or *doéanamáoirí sinn*, both expressions being tautological.

9. This rule, in the case of the third person plural, however, is sometimes not observed; for such expressions as *molairí siad* and *molfairí siad*—they praise, they will praise—are often met with, though *molairí* or *molfairí* alone would answer. And a like construction (in the third plural) is often used when the nominative is a plural noun, both in the present and in the past tense; as *triallairí mic Mileadh*, “the sons of Mile go;” *mar do concádar na draoiče*, “when the druids saw.”

10. The emphatic particles may be postfixed to all the persons of verbs, in the same manner as to pronouns and nouns (p. 39); as *molaim-se*, I praise; *molair-se*, thou praisest. And in all such cases, the word *féin* (p. 40) may be used to make the expression still more emphatic; as *do curfínn-se féin mo leanb a cónla*, “I myself would put my child to sleep.”

11. The general tendency of modern languages is to drop synthetic forms, and to become more analytic. The English language, for example, has lost nearly all its inflections, and supplied their place by prepositions, conjunctions, adverbs, and auxiliary verbs. Following this tendency, the synthetic forms of the Irish verb are falling into disuse in the spoken language; and it has been already remarked (p. 23) that the noun-inflection *ib* is now seldom used in speaking. But all these forms are quite common in even the most modern Irish books; and the learner must, therefore, make himself quite familiar with them.

II. TENSES.

1. In English a regular verb has only two different forms to express tense:—I love, I loved;

all the other tenses are expressed by means of auxiliaries.

2. In Irish, a regular verb has five different forms in the indicative mood for tense. Reckoning those tenses only which are expressed by inflection, an Irish regular verb has therefore FIVE TENSES in the indicative mood.

3. The five tenses with the synthetic forms for the first person singular of the regular verb *goir*, call, are :—

(1.) The present; *goirim*, I call.

(2.) The consuetudinal or habitual present; *goireann mé*, I am in the habit of calling.

(3.) The past, or simple past, or perfect (for it is known by all these three names); *do goireas*, I called.

(4.) The consuetudinal or habitual past; *do goirinn*, I used to call, or I used to be calling.

(5.) The future; *goirfeadh*, I shall or will call.

III. MOODS AND VOICES.

1. The Irish regular verb has four moods:—The Imperative, the Indicative, the Conditional, and the Infinitive. These are the only moods for which the regular verb has distinct inflections.

2. There are, indeed, other moods, which are expressed, not by inflection, but by means of certain conjunctions and particles set before the verb; and these additional moods are given in conjugation in some Irish grammars; but as their forms do not differ from the forms of the four given in the last paragraph, they are not included here.

3. It is only the indicative mood of the verb that has tense inflection; in each of the other moods there is only one tense.

4. There are two voices, the active and the passive. It is only in the active voice that there are personal inflections ; in the passive voice, the three persons singular and the three persons plural have all six the same form, rendering it necessary, of course, that the pronoun be always expressed when there is no noun.

IV. CONJUGATION OF A REGULAR VERB.

buail, *strike.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.

1.
2. **buail**, strike thou.
3. **bualeað sé**, let him
strike.

Plural.

1. **buailimír**, let us strike.
2. **buailíð**, strike ye.
3. **buailroís**, let them strike.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. **buailim**, I strike.
2. **buailir**, thou strikest.
3. **buailro sé**, he strikes.

Plural.

1. **buailimíð**, we strike.
2. **buailtí**, ye strike.
3. **buailro**, they strike.

(*For the relative form of this tense, see p. 55.*)

Consuetudinal or habitual Present.

bualeann mé, *I usually strike.*

(*The same form for all persons and numbers.*)

Past.

- | | |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. ጀuaileas, I struck. | 1. ጀuaileamár, we struck. |
| 2. ጀuaílis, thou struckest. | 2. ጀuaileabár, ye struck. |
| 3. ጀuaíl sé, he struck. | 3. ጀuaileaðar, they struck. |

Old form of Past.

- | | |
|-----------------|--|
| 1. ጀuaileas. | 1. ጀuaileasm or ጀuaílsiom |
| 2. ጀuaílis. | 2. ጀuaileabár. |
| 3. ጀuaileastar. | 3. ጀuaileað, or ጀuaílsioð,
or ጀuaileaðar. |

Consuetudinal Past

- | | |
|---|---------------------------------------|
| 1. ጀuaílinn, I used to
strike. | 1. ጀuaílimís, we used to strike. |
| 2. ጀuaíltceá, thou usedst
to strike. | 2. ጀuaíltí, ye used to strike. |
| 3. ጀuaileað pé, he used to
strike. | 3. ጀuaílroís, they used to
strike. |

Future.

- | | |
|---------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. buailfeas, I will strike. | 1. buailfimíð, we will strike. |
| 2. buailfir, thou wilt strike. | 2. buailfir, ye will strike. |
| 3. buailfir sé, he will strike. | 3. buailfir, they will strike. |

(For the relative form of this tense, see p. 55.)

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| 1. ጀuaílfinn, I would
strike. | 1. ጀuaílfimis, we would
strike. |
| 2. ጀuaílfteá, thou wouldst
strike. | 2. ጀuaílfir, ye would strike. |
| 3. ጀuaílfteas sé, he would
strike. | 3. ጀuaílfroís, they would
strike. |

INF. MOOD. *Do* ጀuailað, *to strike*. PART. *Az* bualað, *striking*.

*PASSIVE VOICE.***IMPERATIVE MOOD.***(The same as the Indicative Present.)***INDICATIVE MOOD.***Present Tense.***Singular. Plural.**

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|--|
| 1. buailtear mé, I am struck. | 1. buailtear sinn or inn, we are struck. |
| 2. buailtear tú, thou art struck. | 2. buailtear síb or íb, ye are struck. |
| 3. buailtear é, he is struck. | 3. buailtear iad, they are struck. |

Consuetudinal Present.*(Same as the Indicative Present.)**Past.*

- | | |
|------------------------------------|---|
| 1. buaileadh mé, I was struck. | 1. buaileadh sinn or inn, we were struck. |
| 2. buaileadh tú, thou wast struck. | 2. buaileadh síb or íb, ye were struck. |
| 3. buaileadh é, he was struck. | 3. buaileadh iad, they were struck. |

Consuetudinal Past.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. buailtí mé, I used to be struck. | 1. buailtí sinn or inn, we used to be struck. |
| 2. buailtí tú, thou usedst to be struck. | 2. buailtí síb or íb, ye used to be struck. |
| 3. buailtí é, he used to be struck. | 3. buailtí iad, they used to be struck. |

Future.

Singular. Plural.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. buailfear mé, I shall or will be struck. | 1. buailfear sinn or inn, we shall or will be struck. |
| 2. buailfear tú, thou shalt or wilt be struck. | 2. buailfear siō or iō, ye shall or will be struck. |
| 3. buailfear é, he shall or will be struck. | 3. buailfear iaō, they shall or will be struck. |

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. buailfíðe mé, I would be struck. | 1. buailfíðe sinn or inn, we would be struck. |
| 2. buailfíðe tú, thou wouldst be struck. | 2. buailfíðe siō or iō, ye would be struck. |
| 3. buailfíðe é, he would be struck. | 3. buailfíðe iaō, they would be struck. |

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Do **beit** **buailte**, *to be struck.*

PARTICIPLE.

buailte, *struck.*

V. RELATIVE FORM OF THE VERB.

1. Besides the forms given in the preceding conjugation, the verb has what is called a “relative form,” i.e., a form used after a relative pronoun. In two of the tenses of the indicative mood, namely, the present and the future, the relative form has a distinct inflection, viz., **as**, **is**, **eas**, or **ios**.

2. For instance, “the person who calls, is translated, not by **an té a ḫoírīð** (3rd sing, form), but by **an té a ḫoíreas**; and “he who will steal,” is not **an té a ḫoírfíð** (3rd sing, form), but **an té a ḫoírfeas**. In other tenses and moods the

relative form is the same as that of the third person singular.

3. This form of the verb is often used even when its nominative is not a relative, but a noun or personal pronoun, to express the “historical present,” i.e., the present tense used for the past; as *fiafraigheas Airmirgin a h-aínim ói*, “Amergin asks her name of her.” (See for a further account of the historical present, p. 57.)

4. And not unfrequently the relative form is used as an ordinary present; as, *Is móR an t-iongna liomsa, náC óisín iarras Fionn mise*, “It is a great wonder to me that it is not for Oisin Finn seeks (iarrar) me.”

VI. FORMATION AND USES OF THE MOODS AND TENSES

OF REGULAR VERBS.

1. The second person singular of the imperative mood, active voice, is the root or simplest form of the verb, from which all the other persons, moods, and tenses are formed directly, by affixing the various terminations.

2. Verbs which end in a consonant preceded by a slender vowel have all their inflections precisely like those of *buaíl* (with the exception mentioned in Par. 4, p. 60); and they all begin with a slender vowel (except sometimes that of the infinitive) in accordance with the rule *cáol le cáol &c.*

3. But when the final consonant is preceded by a broad vowel, the synthetic terminations begin with a broad vowel, in accordance with the same rule. A table of the full conjugation of a regular verb ending in a broad vowel is given at page. 64.

4. The root generally remains unchanged through all the variations of the verb, except that it occasionally suffers a trifling change in the infinitive. The cases in which the root suffers change in the infinitive are mentioned in Par. 4. p. 60. See also Par. 8, p. 63.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

1. The present tense is formed by affixing the six personal terminations *im* (or *aím*), *íp* (or *aír*), &c, to the root.

2. The historical present, i.e., the present tense used for the past, or where past time is intended, is very common in Irish; indeed in many narrative and historical pieces it occurs quite as often as the ordinary past tense in relating past transactions; as, *ÓALA IČ, IOMORRO, OLLMUIΣČEAR LONG LEIS*, "as to Ith, indeed, a ship *is prepared* by him" (instead of *OLLMUIΣČEA* *ó*, was prepared).

3. It has been already remarked (Par. 3, p. 56), that the relative form of the verb is often used for the historical present; as *NOČTAS EIREMÓN DÓIB*, "Eremon reveals to them."

Consuetudinal Past and Present.

1. These tenses express customary action; as *LEÍΣGEANN mé*, I am in the habit of reading; *LEÍΣGEA* *ó* *sé*, he used to read, or he was in the habit of reading.

2. In the sentences, "I write always after breakfast," and "he sold bread in his youth," the verbs "write" and "sold" are used in the same manner as the Irish consuetudinal tense; except, indeed, that the idea is not so distinctly marked by the English phrase as by the Irish.

3. One of the particles *do* or *ro* is usually prefixed to the consuetudinal past; and the initial

consonant is generally aspirated; as **vo ḡoiridís**, they used to call.

4. The Irish peasantry seem to feel the want of these two tenses when they are speaking English; and they often, in fact, attempt to import them into the English language, even in districts where no Irish has been spoken for generations thus they will say, "I do be reading while you do be writing;" " I used to be walking every day while I lived in the country," &c.

Past Tense.

1. In the past tense the initial consonant is aspirated in the active voice, but not in the passive voice.

2. With the exception of the aspiration, the third singular past tense is the same as the root.

3. One of the particles **vo** or **ro** is generally prefixed to the past tense in both voices; as **vo seásas**, I stood; **ro cōrlais**, thou sleepedst; **vo molad̄ iao**, they were praised; **ro buailead̄ é**, he was struck.

4. The particle **ro**, used as a mark of the past tense, is often compounded with other particles, the **r** only being retained, but it still causes aspiration in the active voice, as if it were uncompounded.

5. The principal of these compounds are :—

(1.) **Aṛ**, whether? from **aṇ** and **ro**; as **aṛ buail sé**, did he strike ?

(2.) **Ṅur** that, from **Ṅo** and **ro**; as **creidim ṅur buail sé**, I believe that he struck.

(3.) **Munar**, unless, from **muna** and **ro**; as **munar buail sé**, unless he struck.

(4.) **nācāṛ**, or **nā'ṛ**, or **nár**, whether not? from **nāc** and **po**; as **nár buail ré**, did not he strike?

(5.) **níor**, not, from **níandó ro**; as **níor buail sé**, he did not strike.*

6. The particle **ro**, as a sign of past tense, is also often combined with the relative pronoun **a**; as **an fear d'ar gheallas mo leabhar**, the man *to whom* I promised my book. For a further account of this, see Syntax.

Future Tense.

1. All the personal inflections of this tense, in both voices, begin with the letter **f**, which, in the spoken language, is often sounded like **h**; thus **dúnfað**, I shall shut, is colloquially pronounced *doonhad* (instead of *doonfad*).

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

1. The particle **do**, causing aspiration, is often prefixed to verbs in the conditional mood; as **vo siubhalfaínn**, I would walk.

2. But very often also **da**, if, or **muna**, unless, is prefixed, and with these particles the initial is eclipsed; as **da b-fagáinn-pe mo rogá**, “if I would get my choice;” **muna m-beirdead sé**, “unless he would be.”

3. It is important to note that the personal inflections of this mood in both voices, as well as those of the future indicative, all begin with **f**.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

1. The initial is aspirated in the infinitive, whether the particle **vo** or **a** be expressed or under-

* See Second Irish Book by the Society for the Preservation of the Irish Language, p. 53.

stood. But in some cases the aspiration is prevented by other grammatical influences, as shown in next paragraph.

2. When the infinitive is preceded by one of the possessive pronouns, the initial of the verb falls under the influence of the pronoun.*

(1.) It is aspirated for α , his; mo , my; vo , thy (but here the influence of the pronoun is not perceived, as there would be aspiration without it); as $vá \dot{z}óna\ddot{o}$, to wound him (literally to his wounding, and so of the others); $vo \dot{m}'\dot{z}óna\ddot{o}$, to wound me; $vo v'\dot{z}óna\ddot{o}$, to wound thee.

(2.) It is preserved from aspiration by α , her; as $vá \dot{z}óna\ddot{o}$, to wound her.

(3.) It is eclipsed by the three plural possessives; as $bár n-\dot{z}óna\ddot{o}$, to wound us; $vo bür n-\dot{z}óna\ddot{o}$ to wound you; $vá n-\dot{z}óna\ddot{o}$, to wound them.

3. The general way of forming the infinitive is by adding $\alpha\ddot{o}$ or $e\alpha\ddot{o}$, the first when the last vowel of the root is broad; the second when the vowel is slender.

4. If the final consonant of the root be preceded by i as part of a diphthong or triphthong, the final vowel is made broad in the infinitive (which is usually, but not always, done by dropping the i); as $bua\ddot{l}$, $bua\alpha\ddot{l}\dot{a}\ddot{o}$; $\dot{z}oin$, $\dot{z}óna\ddot{o}$, to wound. But if the final consonant be preceded by i alone, the infinitive is formed according to the general rule in the last paragraph; as $míll$, $mil-e\alpha\ddot{o}$, to destroy.

5. The infinitives of many verbs are formed irregularly, and these must be learned by prac-

* For the influence of the possessive pronouns, see pages 9, 11, 12; and see also Syntax.

tice. The following are a few of such verbs. Each group exhibits a particular type, in which the manner of forming the infinitive will be obvious on inspection.

Root or Imperative.	Infinitive.
éAS.	ó'ÉAS, to die.
snám.	óO SNÁM, to swim.
ól.	ó'ÓL, to drink
TARRAING.	óO TARRAING, to draw.
CUIR.	óO CÚIR, to put.
ŞOL.	óO ŞOL, to weep.
IMIR.	ó'IMIRT, to play.
İNGİL.	ó'İNGİL, to graze.
TİBİR.	óO TÍBIRT, to banish.
ceil.	óO CEILT, to conceal.
FÁS.	ó'FÁSBÁIL, to leave.
ŞAB	óO ŞABÁIL, to take.
TOZ.	óO TOZBÁIL, to lift.
lean.	óO LEANAMAIN, to follow.
CAILL.	óO CAILLEAMAIN, to lose.
OIL.	ó'OILEAMAIN, to nourish.
FOILL.	ó'FOILLEAMAM, to suit.
ŞLUASIS.	óO ŞLUASAÇT, to move.
ÉIST.	ó'ÉISTEACT, to listen.

THE PARTICIPLE.

1. The active participle is merely the infinitive mood, with some such particle as AS prefixed; as AS bualað at beating or a-beating.

2. The passive participle is generally formed by adding TE or ÇE when the last vowel of the root is slender, and TA or ÇA, when broad.

When the root ends in 6,&, I, It, n, nn, p, t, or g (except verbs in uïç or iç), the T of the participial termination retains its sound: after any other consonant, and also in verbs in uïç or iç, the T is aspirated. In the passive voice, the terminations TAR and TÍ follow the same law.

VII. VERBS IN *UİΣ*, &c.

1. Verbs of two or more syllables with the root ending in *uιΣ*, or *iΣ*, and some other dissyllabic verbs ending in *il*, *in*, *ir*, and *is*, differ so decidedly from the model verb in the formation of some of their moods and tenses, that some writers,* not without reason, class them as a second conjugation.

2. The difference lies in the formation of the future and of the conditional in both voices; the other moods and tenses are formed like those of *buail*.

3. In *buail*, and all other verbs of its kind, the letter *f* is a characteristic mark of the future and of the conditional mood in both voices, as stated in Par. 3, p. 59.

4. The verbs now under consideration have no *p* in the future and conditional, but they take instead, *eó*, before the final consonant of the root.

5. In addition to this change, verbs in *uιΣ* and *iΣ* change *Σ* into *č*; though in the spoken language of most parts of Ireland, the *Σ* retains its place.

6. There is no other inflectional difference between these verbs and *buail*, the personal terminations following the final consonant of the root being the same in all cases.

7. In the other tenses of the indicative, verbs in *il*, *in*, *ir* and *is* are almost always syncopated by the elision of the vowel or diphthong preceding the final root consonant, as *coθail*, sleep, *coθlaim*,

* As for instance the Rev. Canon Bourke in his "College Irish Grammar."

I sleep, &c. (But this change is not regarded as grammatical inflection.)

8. Verbs in *uɪ᷑* almost always form their infinitive by dropping the *i* and adding the usual termination *ə᷑*; those in *ɪ᷑* alone (not preceded by *u*), retain the *i* and take *u* after it in the infinitive: as *comārċuɪ᷑*, mark; infinitive, *comārċu᷑᷑ə᷑*; *comāirli᷑*, advise; infinitive, *comāirliu᷑᷑ə᷑*.

9. Sometimes there are other slight changes, caused chiefly by the rule *cəol le cəol* &c, which will be obvious on inspection.

10. The following are a few examples of the formation of the present and future indicative, and of the conditional mood, in such verbs. The first person singular only is given in each case, as the other persons have the same terminations as *buail* and *meall*.

Root or imper.	Pres. indic.	Future indic.	Conditional Mood.
ÓIRI᷑, direct.	ÓIRI᷑im.	ÓIREÓ᷑A᷑.	ÓIREÓ᷑A᷑inn.
GRÁ᷑U᷑, love.	GRÁ᷑U᷑i᷑m.	GRÁ᷑R <small>e</small> O᷑A᷑.	GRÁ᷑R <small>e</small> O᷑A᷑inn.
LA᷑BAIR, speak.	LA᷑RAim.	LA᷑BEÓRA᷑.	LA᷑BEÓRA᷑inn.
TARRU᷑NG, draw.	TAI᷑RNi᷑m.	TAIREÓ᷑A᷑.	TAIREÓ᷑A᷑inn.
FOSGAIL, open.	FOSGЛАIM.	FOSGEÓ᷑A᷑.	FOSGEÓ᷑A᷑inn.
COSAIN, defend.	COSNAim.	COISEÓ᷑A᷑.	COISEÓ᷑A᷑inn.
INNIS, tell.	INNISim.	INNEÓ᷑A᷑.	INNEÓ᷑A᷑inn.
ÓIBIR, banish.	ÓIBRim.	ÓIBEÓRA᷑.	ÓIBEÓRA᷑inn.

11. In Munster, verbs in *il*, *in*, *ir*, and *is*, are conjugated like those in *uɪ᷑* or *ɪ᷑*; and the *eó* comes *after* the final consonant: thus *óibir*, banish, is made in the future and conditional, *óibreó᷑᷑ə᷑* and *óibreó᷑᷑ə᷑inn*, as if the verb were *óibri᷑*.

12. A table of the full conjugation of a verb in *uɪ᷑* (*árdui᷑*) is given at page 65.

SYNTHETIC CONJUGATION OF **meall**, deceive.

	ACTIVE VOICE.		PASSIVE VOICE.		
	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL..	
Imperative Mood.	1. — 2. meall 3. meall-āò sé	meall-āmāoīs meall-āiò meall-āiòs	<i>Same form as the Present Indicative.</i>		
Pres. Tense.	1. meall-āim 2. meall-āir 3. meall-āiò sé	meall-āmāoī meall-āiò meall-āiòs	meall-čar {mé čú sé}	meall-čar {sinn, siò, iaò}	
Consuet. Present.	1. 2. 3.	meall- {mé čú sé} ann	meall- {sinn siò iaò}	<i>Same form as the Present.</i>	
Simple Past.	1. ṁeall-ās 2. ṁeall-āiś 3. ṁeall-sé	ṁeall-āmār ṁeall-ābār ṁeall-āòar	meall-āò {mé čú sé}	meall-āò {sinn, siò, iaò}	
Consuet. Past.	1. ṁeall-āmī 2. ṁeall-čú 3. ṁeall-āò sé	ṁeall-āmāoī ṁeall-čāoī ṁeall-āiòs	meall-čaoī {mé čú sé}	meall-čaoī {sinn, siò, iaò}	
Future.	1. meall-fāò 2. meall-fāir 3. meall-fāò sé	meall-fār {mé čú sé}		meall-fār {sinn, siò, iaò}	
Conditional Mood.	1. ṁeall-fāmī 2. ṁeall-fāò sé 3.	meall-fārōe {mé čú sé}		meall-fārōe {sinn, siò, iaò}	
	Infinitive Mood, oo ṁeall-āò .		Infinitive Mood, oo ṁeall-āò .		
	Participle, ās meall-āò .		Participle, meall-ča.		
Indicative Mood.					

SYNTHETIC CONJUGATION OF ÁRTHOUÍS, raise

		ACTIVE VOICE.		PASSIVE VOICE.	
		SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Imperative Mood.	1. — 2. ÁR <small>TH</small> OUÍS 3. ÁR <small>TH</small> OUÍS-eA <small>ð</small> sé	ÁR <small>TH</small> OUÍS-mís ÁR <small>TH</small> OUÍS-íó ÁR <small>TH</small> OUÍS-óis		Same form as the Present Indicative.	
Pres. Tense.	1. ÁR <small>TH</small> OUÍS-im 2. ÁR <small>TH</small> OUÍS-ir 3. ÁR <small>TH</small> OUÍS-íó sé	ÁR <small>TH</small> OUÍS-míó ÁR <small>TH</small> OUÍS-cí ÁR <small>TH</small> OUÍS-íó		ÁR <small>TH</small> OUÍS-ícear ÁR <small>TH</small> OUÍS-ícear	{sinn, inn síó, íó lað}
Consuet. Present.	1. ÁR <small>TH</small> OUÍS- eann 2. { 3. }	{mé cú sé} ÁR <small>TH</small> OUÍS- eann	{sinn síó síðað}	Same form as the Present.	
Simple Past.	1. ÁR <small>TH</small> OUÍS-eA <small>ð</small> 2. ÁR <small>TH</small> OUÍS-is 3. ÁR <small>TH</small> OUÍS-sé	ÁR <small>TH</small> OUÍS-eamar ÁR <small>TH</small> OUÍS-eáðar ÁR <small>TH</small> OUÍS-eáðar		ÁR <small>TH</small> OUÍS-eA <small>ð</small> ÁR <small>TH</small> OUÍS-ícear	{sinn, inn síó, íó lað}
Consuet. Past.	1. ÁR <small>TH</small> OUÍS-ínn 2. ÁR <small>TH</small> OUÍS-íceá 3. ÁR <small>TH</small> OUÍS-eA <small>ð</small> sé	ÁR <small>TH</small> OUÍS-míó ÁR <small>TH</small> OUÍS-cí ÁR <small>TH</small> OUÍS-óis		ÁR <small>TH</small> OUÍS-í ÁR <small>TH</small> OUÍS-íceí	{sinn, inn síó, íó lað}
Future.	1. ÁR <small>TH</small> OEÓC-Að 2. ÁR <small>TH</small> OEÓC-Air 3. ÁR <small>TH</small> OEÓC-aið sé	ÁR <small>TH</small> OEÓC-ámaðið ÁR <small>TH</small> OEÓC-çáðið ÁR <small>TH</small> OEÓC-áið		ÁR <small>TH</small> OEÓC-AR ÁR <small>TH</small> OEÓC-çáðorð	{sinn, inn síó, íó lað}
Conditional Mood.	1. ÁR <small>TH</small> OEÓC-ánn 2. ÁR <small>TH</small> OEÓC-çá 3. ÁR <small>TH</small> OEÓC-áð sé	ÁR <small>TH</small> OEÓC-ámaðis ÁR <small>TH</small> OEÓC-çáðið ÁR <small>TH</small> OEÓC-áiðis		ÁR <small>TH</small> OEÓC-ároðe ÁR <small>TH</small> OEÓC-çáðorð	{sinn, inn síó, íó lað}
Indicative Mood.		Infinitive Mood, ðó Participle, Að ÁR <small>TH</small> OUÍSAð.		Infinitive Mood, ðó Participle, ÁR <small>TH</small> OUÍSAð.	
				Participle, ÁR <small>TH</small> OUÍSAð.	

VIII. IRREGULAR VERBS.

1. There are fourteen irregular verbs, several of which are defective, i.e., want one or more of the moods and tenses. The conjugation of some of them, it will be observed, is made up of that of two or more different verbs.

2. It will also be observed that through all their irregularities, the five synthetic personal terminations remain unchanged; for which reason it is scarcely correct to call these verbs irregular at all.

3. The irregular verbs are as follows :—(1), **τάιμ**, I am; (2), the assertive verb **ἰς**; (3), **ῳείριμ**, I give; (4), **ῳείριμ**, I bear; (5), **ċim**, I see (including **ϝείċim**); (6), **ċluinim**, I hear; (7), **ῳέαν-αιμ**, I do; (8), **ᷔním** or **ním**, I do; (9), **ῳείριμ**, I say; (10), **ϝαᷔδαιμ** or **ᷔειδιμ**, I find; (11), **ičim**, I eat; (12), **ṛiᷔsim**, I reach; (13), **τέιᷔim**, I go; (14), **τιᷔsim**, I come.

4. The following is the synthetic conjugation of the irregular verbs (except in the case of the second verb **ἰς**, which has no synthetic conjugation). They may be all conjugated analytically, by using the third person singular of each tense with the three personal pronouns singular and plural, as shown in case of the regular verb at page 49. As an example, the analytic conjugation of the present tense of the first verb, **τάιμ**, is given.

(1.) **τάιμ**, *I am.*

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.

1.
2. **bí**, be thou.
3. **ῳօεαᷔ sé**, or **ῳօᷔ sé**,
let him be

Plural.

1. **bímís**, let us be.
2. **bíᷔíᷔ**, be ye.
3. **bíᷔís**, let them be.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. τάιμ, ατάιμ, I am.
2. τάιρ, ατάιρ, thou art.
3. τά sé, ατά sé, he is.

Plural.

1. τάμαοι, ατάμαοι, we are.
2. τάταοι, ατάταοι, ye are.
3. τάιο, ατάιο, they are.

Present Tense: analytic conjugation.

1. τά mé, acd mé, I am:
2. τά tú, acd tú, thou art.
3. τά sé, ατά sé, he is.

1. τά sinn, ατά sinn, we are.
2. τά siö, ατά siö, ye are.
3. τά siaò, ατά siaò, they are.

Consuetudinal Present.

1. bíòim, I am usually.
2. bíṣir, thou art usually.
3. bíðeann sé, or bíonn sé, is usually.

1. bímíò, bíòmíò, bí-
maoio, we are usually.
2. bíčí, bíòčí, ye are usually.
3. bíò, bíòr, they are usu-
ally.

Interrogative and Negative Present.

(The negative particle is here used: see Par. 3, p. 69.)

1. ní ö-fuilim, I am not.*
2. ní ö-fuilir, thou art not.
3. ní ö-fuil sé, he is not.

1. ní ö-fuilmíò, we are not.
2. ní ö-fuilčí, ye are not.
3. ní ö-fuilrò, they are not.

* These are commonly pronounced in conversation as if the ö-fui were omitted in each case; and accordingly they are often contracted in books to ní'lim, ní'lir, ní'l sé, &c.

Past Tense.

Singular. Plural.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. þíðeas , þíos , I was. | 1. þíðeamar , þíomar , we were. |
| 2. þíðis , þís , thou wert. | 2. þíðeabær , þíobær , ye were. |
| 3. þíð sé , þí sé , he was. | 3. þíðeavær , þíovær , they were. |

Consuetudinal Past.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. þíðinn , þínn , I used to be. | 1. þíðmís , þímís , we used to be. |
| 2. þíðčeá , þíčeá , thou usedst to be. | 2. þíðcí , bíczí , ye used to be. |
| 3. þíðeað sé , þíð sé , he used to be. | 3. þíðvís , þívís , they used to be. |

Interrogative and Negative Past.

(The negative particle is here used: see Par. 3, p. 69).

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| 1. ní ráðas , I was not. | 1. ní ráðamar , we were not. |
| 2. ní ráðais , thou wert not. | 2. ní ráðabær , ye were not. |
| 3. ní ráð sé , he was not. | 3. ní ráðavær , they were not. |

Future.

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 1. berðeav , I shall be. | 1. berðmíð , we shall be. |
| 2. berðir , thou shalt be. | 2. berðró , ye shall be. |
| 3. berð sé , he shall be. | 3. berðró , they shall be. |

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

- | | |
|--|-----------------------------------|
| 1. <i>þerðinn</i> , I would be. | 1. <i>þerðmís</i> , we would be. |
| 2. <i>þerðceá</i> , thou wouldst be. | 2. <i>þerðcí</i> , ye would be. |
| 3. <i>þerðeað sé</i> , or <i>þeit sé</i> ,
he would be. | 3. <i>þerðís</i> , they would be. |

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Do þeit, to be.

PARTICIPLE.

Aṣ þeit, being.

1. Tá is commonly called the substantive verb, and answers to the verb “to be” in English.

2. It has two forms, which the regular verb has not, namely, a form in the present tense for interrogation and negation (*þ-fuīlím*), and a form in the past tense for the same (*RÁðas*). These two are classed by O'Donovan as a subjunctive mood, present and past tense.

3. The forms *þ-fuīlím* and *RÁðas* are used only:—

(a.) After negative and interrogative particles; as *ní þ-fuīl sé tīnn*, he is not sick; *ní RÁðo mé aṇn sīn*, I was not there: *aṇ þ-fuīl fíon in þár longaīb?* “Is there wine in your ships?” *Aṇ RÁðais aṣ aṇ ᷑-CARRAIS?* “Wert thou at the rock” (or at Carrick)? *O nāc þ-fuīl vúl uaīo aṣam*, “since I cannot escape from him” (lit. “since it is not with me to go from him”); *aṇ þ-fuīl a ḡíos aṣat fein, a Fhinn?* *ní ḡuīl, aR Fionn*, “‘Is the knowledge of it with thyself, OFinn?’ ‘It is not,’ says Finn.”

(But these forms are not used after the interrogative *cionnas*, how?)

(b.) After **so**, that; as **DEIRIM** **so** **ó-fuil** **sé slán**, I say that he is well.

(c.) After the relative **a** when it follows a preposition, or when it signifies “all that” (Par. 3, page 47); **AS CREUD** **é** **AN FREAGRA** **ČAÓARFAIR** **AR** **DHÍA**, **AS A ó-fuil** **FÍOS** **DO LOČT?** “What answer wilt thou give to God, who has a knowledge of thy sins?” (lit. “with whom is a knowledge”); **A ó-fuil** **ó** **AČ-CLIATH** **so** **h-Oileán mór** **AN BHARRAIG**, “all that is from Ath-cliath (Dublin) to Oileán mór an Bharraigh;” **DO BEIRMIÓ** **AR M-BRIAT** **NAC BEAS LINN A M-BEURAM** **so** **FIONN** **TIOS**, “we pledge our word, that we do not think it little, all that we shall bring of them to Finn.”

4. This verb, like verbs in general, has a relative form for the present and future; but the relative form of the present is always a consuetudinal tense (whereas in regular verbs it is generally not consuetudinal); as **MAR** **AN S-CÉADNA** **ÓIOS** (or **ÓÍDEAS**) **AN BÁS** **AN OISCILL** **DO SÍOR** **AR** **AN DUINE**; “in like manner death is (in the habit of) lying in wait always for man.”

5. The analytic form of this verb is now far more common in the spoken language than the synthetic. In asking a question the analytic form is often preferred: but in answering, the synthetic; as **AN SAIB TÚ AS AN S-CARRAIG?** **DO ÓIOS AS AN S-CARRAIG**, “Were you at Carrick? I was at Carrick.”

6. The letter **a** is often prefixed to the present tense both in speaking and writing : **AΤÁ** instead of **TÁ**, &c.; it is sometimes slightly emphatic, but oftener merely euphonic, and does not otherwise affect the meaning.

7. This verb is often used as an auxiliary, like the verb “to be” in English; and it is the only verb in the Irish language that can be regarded

as an auxiliary. Thus, instead of **buailtear** mé, I am struck, we can say **tá** mé **buailte**: for **do buaileadh** mé, I was struck, **do bígí** mé **buailte**, &c.

(2.) *Is, it is.*

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense,

Is, it is: as **is** **mé**, it is I; **is** **tú**, it is thou.

Past Tense,

bá or **buð**, it was; as **bá** **mé**, it was I.

Future Tense.

buð or **bus**, it will be.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

báð, it would be.

1. This is commonly called the assertive verb.
2. It has no inflection for person, being always used in the third person singular: hence it is often called the impersonal verb.
3. It has no other moods and tenses besides those given above.
4. It takes other forms in the modern language, some of them contracted, which are often puzzling to learners.
5. After **gur**, that, it is often made **ab**, which is given by O'Donovan as a subjunctive mood; as **creidim gur ab é atá tinn**, I believe that it is he (who) is sick: **measum bá réir sin**, **gur ab dá bliaagain agus fíche sul rugadh Abraham táníc parabolón i n-Eirinn**, “I think, according to that,

that it is two years and twenty before Abraham was born, that Partholon came to Erin."

6. Very often *gur ab* is shortened by omitting the *a*; as *cpeibim gur 'be*, &c.; and sometimes the *b* is joined to *gur*, as *creiom gurb é*, &c.

7. After *má*, if, the *i* is omitted, as *má's fíor é*, if it be true; and in this case the *s* is often joined to the *má*; as *más fíor é: más maič leat a bеič buan, caič fuar agus teič*, "if you wish to be long-lived, drink cold and hot" (or "drink cold and flee"—a celebrated Irish saying of double meaning).

8. Sometimes *ba* or *þa* is shortened to *b* or *þ* alone, which again is often joined to the preceding word; as *laoč d'ár þ'aínm lir*, or *laoč d'árþ aínm lir*, "a hero whose name was Lir;" of which the full construction is, *laoč do a ro þa aínm lir*, "a hero to whom was name Lir."

9. There is another form, *fá*, for the past tense, which is now disused, but which is constantly used by Keating, and by other writers of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries: *fá tréanfear an Ceat so*, "this Ceat was a mighty man;" *is í (banba) fá bean do Mhac Coill, d'ár þ'aínm dílios eacúr*, "it is she (Banba) who was wife to Mac Coll, whose proper name was Eathur;" *ós é an scoitþéarla fá teanga coitcheann san Scitia an tráč do tríall neimheadh airde*, "since it is the Scotic language which was the common tongue in Scythia in the time that Neimheadh emigrated from it."*

10. For the distinction between *ta* and *is*, see Idioms.

*For the various forms assumed by this verb in the ancient language, see O'Donovan's most instructive article in his "Irish Grammar," p. 161.

(3.) Bheirim, *I give.**ACTIVE VOICE.*

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural
1. . . .	1. taðramaois.
2. taðair.	2. taðraið.
3. taðrað sé.	3. taðradaois.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

First Person Singular.

Present:	þeirim, taðraim, or tugaim.	With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers
Consuet. Pres.:	þeireann.	
Past:	þugar.	
Consuet. Past:	þeirinn, þugainn.	
Future:	þéarfad, taðarfad.	
CONDITIONAL MOOD:	þéarfainn, þaðarfainn.	

INFINITIVE; do þaðairt. PARTICIPLE; ag taðairt.

PASSIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE; beirðear, táðarðar, tugðar, mé, tú, é, &c.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present:	þeirðear, tugðar.	Mé, tú, é, &c.
Past:	tugað.	
Consuet. Past:	þeirðið, þugðaið.	
Future:	béarfarið, þaðarfarið.	
CONDITIONAL MOOD:	þéarfaið, þaðarfaið.	

INFINITIVE; do þeið taðarða, do þeið cugða.
PARTICIPLE; taðarða, cugða.

1. This verb is made up of three different verbs: in some of the tenses any one of the three may be employed; in some, either of two; and in some only one; as shown in the paradigm.

2. In the present tense, *þeirim* (but not the other two verbs) takes the particle *do* (which is a mark of the past in regular verbs), and commonly has its initial aspirated

(4.) *Beirim, I bear,*

ACTIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular. Plural.

1. . . .	1. <i>beirimís.</i>
2. <i>beir.</i>	2. <i>beiríð.</i>
3. <i>beireað sé.</i>	3. <i>beiridís.</i>

INDICATIVE MOOD

First Person Singular.

<i>Present:</i>	<i>beirim.</i>	With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
<i>Consuet. Present:</i>	<i>beireann.</i>	
<i>Past:</i>	<i>rugas.</i>	
<i>Consuet. Past:</i>	<i>béirinn.</i>	
<i>Future:</i>	<i>béarfad.</i>	
CONDITIONAL MOOD:	<i>þéarfainn.</i>	

INFINITIVE; *do þreit.* **PARTICIPLE** *ag breit.*

PASSIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD; *beirðear mé, čú, é, &c.*

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present:	beirčear.	}	Me, čú, é, &c.
Past:	rugað.		
Consuet. Past:	þeirčí.		
Future:	béarfar.		
CONDITIONAL MOOD:	þéarfaiðe.		

INFINITIVE; do þeič beirče. PARTICIPLE; beirče.

(5.) Čím, I see.

ACTIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
1. . . .	1. feicimís, feicimíd.
2. feic.	2. feicíð.
3. feiceað sé.	3. feicidís.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

1. číðim, čím, feicim.	1. číðmíd, čímíd, feicimíd
2. číðir, čír, feicir.	2. číðčí, číčí, feicčí.
3. číðið sé, čið sé, feicið sé.	3. číðid, číd, feicid.

Consuet. Pres.; číðeann, feiceann, mé, tú, sé, &c.

Past.

1. čonnarcas.	1. čoncamar.
2. čonnarcais.	2. čoncaðar.
3. čonnairc sé.	3. čoncabar.

First Person Singular.

Consuet. Past:	číðinn or čínn.	With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
Future:	číðfead or čífead.	
CONDITIONAL MOOD:	číðfinn, or čífinn, or feicfinn.	

INFINITIVE MOOD; d'feicsin or d'feicsint.

PARTICIPLE; ag feicsin or ag feicsint.

PASSIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD; *feichear*, *mé*, *čú*, *é*, &c.

INDICATIVE Mood.

Present Tense:	<i>čí<small>h</small>oclear</i> or <i>feic<small>h</small>ear</i> .	}
Past:	<i>connarca<small>h</small>o</i> .	
Past. Consuet.:	<i>čí<small>h</small>ochí</i> or <i>feic<small>h</small>ochí</i> .	
Future:	<i>čí<small>h</small>ofear</i> or <i>feicfear</i> .	
Conditional Mood:	<i>čí<small>h</small>ofí<small>h</small>e</i> or <i>feicfí<small>h</small>e</i> .	

INFINITIVE MOOD; *do* *veih feiche*. PARTICIPLE; *feicte*

1. *Číhom* is defective in some of its moods and tenses, which are supplied by other verbs—the imperative and infinitive by *feicim* or *faicim*, and the past indicative of both voices by an old verb—otherwise disused—*connarcaim*.

2. *Feicim* or *faicim*, although it is brought in among the irregular verbs to supply the defects of *číhom*, is itself regular.

3. Observe that the initial of *číhom* is *always* aspirated.

(6.) *Cluinim*. *I hear.*

INDICATIVE Mood.

Past Tense.

1. <i>čualas.</i>	1. <i>čualamar.</i>
2. <i>čualais.</i>	2. <i>čuala<small>h</small>ar.</i>
3. <i>čualai<small>h</small>o sé.</i>	3. <i>čualadar.</i>

INFINITIVE MOOD ACTIVE; *do* *člos* or *do* *čloistin*.

PARTICIPLE ACTIVE ; *ag* *clos* or *ag* *cloistin*.

1. In all the other moods and tenses, *cluinim* is regular, and is conjugated like *buail*.

(7.) Déanaim, *I do.**ACTIVE VOICE.*

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

1. . . .

1. déanam, déanamaois,
déanamaoid.

2. déan.

2. déanaið.

3. déanað sé.

3. déanaidís.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

*Past Tense.*1. riȝneas, ȝeárnas, ȝéa-
nas.1. riȝneamar, ȝeárnamar,
ȝéanamar.2. riȝnis, ȝeárnais, ȝéa-
nais.2. riȝneastr, ȝeárnastr,
ȝéanastr.3. riȝne sé, ȝeárnas sé,
déan sé.3. riȝneadar, ȝeárnadar,
ȝéanadar.

First Person Singular.

Present: déanaim.

Consuet. Pres.: déanann.

Consuet. Past: ȝníȝinn, ȝearnainn, ȝéa-
nainn.

Future: déanfad.

CONDITIONAL ȝéanfainn.

MOOD:

INFINITIVE Mood; do ȝéanam or do ȝéanað.

PARTICIPLE; ag déanam or ag déanað.

PASSIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE Mood; Déantar mé, ȝú, é, &c.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present: déantar.

Past: riȝneastr, deárnað.

Consuet. Past: ȝníȝí.

Future: déanfar.

CONDITIONAL ȝéanfaiðe.

MOOD:

INFINITIVE Mood; do ȝeiȝ déanta. PARTICIPLE; déanta.

1. This verb and the next borrow from each other to form some of the moods and tenses in which they are defective.

With the
usual termina-
tions for the
other persons
and numbers.

}

Mé, ȝú, é, &c.

(8.) Gním or ním, *I do.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

First Person Singular.

Present:

gním or ním.

Past:

šníðeas or níðeas.

Consuet. Past:

šníðinn or níðinn.

} With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.

PASSIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present:

gníðear or níðear.

Consuet. Past:

šníðí or níðí.

} Mé, čú, é, &c.

1. This verb is used in no other moods or tenses; but so far as it goes it is very common in both forms—with and without the g (gním and ním). The other moods and tenses are expressed by means of béanaim.

(9.) Deirim, *I say.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.

Plural.

1. . . .

1. abram, abramaoid.

2. abair.

2. abraio.

3. abrao sé.

3. abrabaois.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

1. deirim.

1. deirimíd.

2. deirir.

2. deirčio.

3. deir sé.

3. deirid.

Consuet. Pres. beireann mé, tú, sé, &c.

Past.

1. duɔras.	1. duɔramar.
2. duɔrais.	2. duɔraðar.
3. duɔairt sé.	3. duɔradar.

First Person Singular.

Consuet. Past:	beirinn.	With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
Future:	béarfad.	
Conditional Mood:	béarfainn.	

INFINITIVE MOOD; do ráð. PARTICIPLE; ag ráð.

PASSIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD; abarðar mé, tú, é, &c.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present:	deirðear.	Mé, þú, é, &c.	
Past:	duɔrað.		
Consuet Past:	deirðí.		
Future:	déarfari.		
CONDITIONAL MOOD:	déarfaiðe.		

INFINITIVE MOOD; do theValue ráðte, do theValue ráite.

PARTICIPLE; ráðte, ráite.

1. The verb abraim, I say, from which deipim borrows its imperative, is itself a regular verb.

2. Observe the characteristics of duɔras, the past indicative active:— (a) it does not take the participle do or ro; (b) the initial is not aspirated.

3. The letter a is often prefixed to this verb for the sake of emphasis; as a deirim for deirim, I say; a duɔairt sé for duɔairt sé, he said.

(10.) Fagaim or ȝeiðim, *I find.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE Mood.

Singular.

1. . . .
2. fað.
3. faðað sé.

Plural.

1. faðmaois, faðmaoid.
2. faðaið.
3. faðaidís.

INDICATIVE Mood.

Present Tense.

- | | |
|---------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. faðaim or ȝeiðim. | 1. faðmaoid or ȝeiðmíd. |
| 2. faðair or ȝeiðip. | 2. faðcaíð or ȝeiðcáið. |
| 3. faðaíð sé, or ȝeið sé. | 3. faðaid or ȝeiðid. |

Past.

- | | |
|--------------|--------------|
| 1. fuarás. | 1. fuaramar. |
| 2. fuerais. | 2. fuaraðar. |
| 3. fuair sé. | 3. fueradar. |

First Person Singular.

- | | | |
|-------------------------|--|--|
| Consuet. Past: | faðainn or ȝeiðinn. | } |
| Future: | ȝeaðad, ȝeoðad. | |
| Future neg. & interrog. | ȝeaðad or þfuðead. | |
| CONDITIONAL MOOD: | ȝeaðainn, ȝeoðainn,
or þ-faðainn, þ-fuðinn. | With the
usual termina-
tions for the
other persons
and numbers. |

INFINITIVE; d'fáðail. PARTICIPLE; ag fáðail.

PASSIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE Mood; faðcar mé, ȝú, é, &c.

INDICATIVE Mood.

- | | | |
|-------------------|------------------------|----------------|
| Present: | faðcar. | } |
| Past: | fuarað or frið. | |
| Consuet. Past: | ȝeiðcáið. | |
| CONDITIONAL MOOD: | ȝeaðcáiðe, þ-fuðcáiðe. | Mé, ȝú, é, &c. |

(Defective in Infinitive and Participle.)

1. The second form of this verb (*ȝeisim*) has its initial aspirated in the present and future active.

2. The past tense (*fuaras*, &c.) may or may not take the particle *do* or *ro*; but its initial consonant is not aspirated.

(11.) *Icim*, *I eat.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

First Person Singular.

Future Indicative: *iorfad.*

CONDITIONAL
MOOD:

iorfainn.

} with the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.

1. The past indicative is either the regular form *d'iċeas*, &c, or the irregular *duar* (with the usual terminations:—*buais*, *buaiż* *sé*, &c.)
 2. The infinitive is *d'iċe*.
 3. In other respects this verb is regular.
-

(12.) *Riġim*, *I reach.*

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
1. . . .	1. <i>riġmís.</i>
2. <i>riġ.</i>	2. <i>riġíż.</i>
3. <i>riġeaż</i> <i>sé.</i>	3. <i>riġidís.</i>

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular. Plural.

1. <i>riġim</i>	1. <i>riġmíd.</i>
2. <i>riġir</i>	2. <i>riġčí.</i>
3. <i>riġ sé.</i>	3. <i>riġid.</i>

Past.

1. RÁNGAS.	1. RÁNGAMAR.
2. RÁNGAIS.	2. RÁNGAÖAR.
3. RÁINIS SÉ, RÁNAIS SÉ.	3. RÁNGAÖAR.

First Person Singular.

Consuet. Past:	RÍGINN.	}
Future:	RÍSFEDAÐ.	
CONDITIONAL	RÍSFINN.	
MOOD:		

With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.

INFINITIVE; DO RIACTAIN or ROCTAIN.

1. The past, future, and conditional, are sometimes expressed by a different verb, as follows:—but this form (which is the same form as the infinitive), is not often met with in the modern language.

First Person Singular.

Past:	RIAÇTAS.	}
Future:	RIAÇTFAÐ.	
CONDITIONAL	RÍAÇTFAINN.	
MOOD:		

With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.

(13.) TÉRÖIM, *I go.*

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
1. . . .	1. TÉRÖMÍR.
2. TÉRÖ.	2. TÉRÖIR.
3. TÉRÖEAÐ SÉ.	3. TÉRÖÖÍS.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. TÉRÖIM.	1. TÉRÖMÍÐ.
2. TÉRÖIR.	2. TÉRÖÖÍÐ OR TÉRÖÍÐ.
3. TÉRÖ SÉ.	3. TÉRÖIR.

Past Tense.

- | | |
|--------------|-------------|
| 1. CUAÓAS. | 1. CUAÓMAR. |
| 2. CUAÓAIS. | 2. CUAÓBAR. |
| 3. CUAÍR sé. | 3. CUAÓDAR. |

There is another form of the past tense of this verb used after the particles *so*, *ní*, &c., which O'Donovan classes as a subjunctive mood. The negative *ní*, which aspirates, is here prefixed: after *so*, the initial would be eclipsed.

- | | |
|-------------------|-----------------|
| 1. ní ḡeacás. | 1. ní ḡeacámar. |
| 2. ní ḡeacáis. | 2. ní ḡeacábar. |
| 3. ní ḡeacáir sé. | 3. ní ḡeacádar. |

First Person Singular.

<i>Consuet. Past:</i>	ċéirínn.	With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
<i>Future:</i>	raċfaḋ or raċaḋ.	
CONDITIONAL MOOD:	raċfaṁn or raċainn.	

INFINITIVE; *so* *óul*. PARTICIPLE; *a᷑* *óul*.

(14.) *Ciġim*, *I come*.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.

- | | |
|------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. . . . | 1. ciġimís or ciġeam. |
| 2. ciġar or ciġ. | 2. ciġir. |
| 3. ciġeaḋ sé. | 3. ciġirís. |

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

- | | |
|------------|-------------------|
| 1. ciġim. | 1. ciġimíċ. |
| 2. ciġir. | 2. ciġír, ciġċír. |
| 3. ciġ sé. | 3. ciġir. |

Past Tense.

1. ḡáŋgas.
2. ḡáŋgair.
3. ḡáinic sé.

1. ḡáŋgamar.
2. ḡáŋgaþar.
3. ḡáŋgaðar.

First Person Singular

<i>Consuet. Past:</i>	ṭiginn.	With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
<i>Future:</i>	ṭiocfæb.	
<i>CONDITIONAL</i>	ṭiocfainn	

MOOD:

INFINITIVE; **vo ḡeaċċ.** PARTICIPLE; **as ḡeaċċ.**

OTHER DEFECTIVE VERBS.

1. The following defective verbs are often met with in the modern language.

AIR or **AR**, “says.” It is used only in the third person, much like the English defective verb *quoth*; as, **AIR sé**, says he: **creuð vo ðéunfaIR ðam?** **ap Diarmaid:** “ ‘What wilt thou do for me?’ says Diarmaid;” **ðéan eólus ðúinn mar a þ-fuil sé**, ar **siað**, “ ‘give knowledge to us where he is,’ said they (or say they).” In the older writings this verb is often written **ol**.

At bæt, he (or she) died.

ðar, it seems, it seemed, or it might seem (according to the tense or mood of the verb with which it is connected). **ðar liom**, methinks or methought; **ðar leat** it seems or seemed to thee; and so on with the rest of these prepositional pronouns singular and plural: **ðo rič sé**, **ðar liom**, **mar an ḡaoit**, he ran, methought (or it seemed to me) like the wind.

ðlisċear, it is lawful, it is allowed.

Dus, to know; *čainic sé dus an raiš siad ann*, he came (in order) to know whether they were there.

Feadar, I know; used only negatively and interrogatively, and in the present tense: *ní ſeadar mé*, I do not know; *ní ſeadar sé*, he does not know; *an ḫ-feadraðar?* do ye know?

Ní fuláir, it is necessary (or "must," used impersonally); *ní fuláir ḫam a ḫeic̄ air siuðal*, "it is necessary for me to be (or I must be) walking (away)."

CHAPTER VI.

ADVERBS, PREPOSITIONS, CONJUNCTIONS, INTERJECTIONS.

I. ADVERBS.

1. There are not many simple adverbs in the Irish language. Far the greatest number of the Irish adverbs are compounds of two or more words.

2. An adverb may be formed from an adjective by prefixing the particle *go*, which in this application has the same effect as the English postfix *ly*; as *borb*, fierce; *go borb*, fiercely. Almost all Irish adjectives admit of being changed in this manner to adverbs.

3. Besides the adverbs formed in this way, there are many compound adverbs, which are generally made up of a noun and a preposition; the preposition often causing an eclipsis.

4. The following is an alphabetical list of the compound adverbs in most general use, with a few of the simple adverbs. Some of the compound adverbs become, in some situations, prepositions:—

A <i>ᬁ-fad</i> , far off, in space or time.	A <i>d-tosad</i> , at first, in the beginning.
A <i>ᬁus</i> , on this side. (See <i>čall</i> .)	A <i>d-tuair</i> , northwards. A <i>g-céadóir</i> , immediately.

Δ <i>s-céin</i> , far off.	Δ <i>n-cessare</i> , to this side; hither.
Δ <i>s-comnurðe</i> , always.	Δ <i>near</i> , near.
Δ <i>sín</i> , there.	Δ <i>nisi</i> , to-day.
Δ <i>só</i> , here.	Δ <i>now</i> , now.
Δ <i>súð</i> , yonder.	Δ <i>non</i> , to that side; thither.
Δ <i>air</i> <i>ais</i> , back, backward. — (See Δ <i>éigin</i> .)	Δ <i>tan</i> , when.
Δ <i>air ball</i> , on the spot, instantaneously.	Δ <i>nuas</i> , from above, downwards.
Δ <i>air bič</i> , at all.	Δ <i>réir</i> , last night.
Δ <i>air bun</i> , on foundation: Δ <i>cur air bun</i> , to found, to institute.	Δ <i>riam</i> , ever.
Δ <i>air céana</i> , in like manner; in general.	Δ <i>ris</i> , again.
Δ <i>air corðce</i> , for ever.	Δ <i>steac</i> , in, into.
Δ <i>air éigin</i> , with difficulty; perforce:—Δ <i>air ais no air</i> <i>éigin</i> , by consent or by force: <i>nolens volens</i> ; <i>willy nilly</i> .	Δ <i>stiç</i> , in, inside.
Δ <i>air s-cúl</i> , backwards, back: Δ <i>cur air s-cúl</i> —the opposite to Δ <i>air bun</i> —to put back, to abolish.	Δ <i>beas nač</i> , little but; almost.
Δ <i>air leit</i> , apart, separately.	Δ <i>h-as</i> , <i>cav as</i> , <i>canas</i> , from what? whence?
Δ <i>air moð</i> , in a manner; so that.	Δ <i>méri</i> , how many? how much?
Δ <i>air son</i> , for the sake of.	Δ <i>áit</i> , <i>cá h-áit</i> , <i>cia áit</i> , what place?
Δ <i>air uairib</i> , at times; sometimes.	Δ <i>de bris</i> , because.
Δ <i>mač</i> , out of, outside.	Δ <i>sior</i> , always.
Δ <i>máin</i> , alone, only.	Δ <i>eadon</i> , that is; i.e.; <i>id est</i> .
Δ <i>márač</i> , to-morrow.	Δ <i>fá</i> , gives an adverbial meaning to some words.
Δ <i>muíç</i> , outside.	Δ <i>céadóir</i> , immediately.
Δ <i>muil</i> , like, as.	Δ <i>ðeoig</i> , at last.
Δ <i>n áirðe</i> , on high.	Δ <i>ðó</i> , twice.
Δ <i>ne</i> , yesterday.	Δ <i>seac</i> , by turns; respectively.
Δ <i>nios</i> , from below, upwards.	Δ <i>tri</i> , thrice.
Δ <i>nn éinfeac̄t</i> , together.	Δ <i>so bráč</i> , for ever (lit. to [the] judgment).
Δ <i>nn sin</i> , there.	Δ <i>so veimín</i> , verily; truly; indeed.
Δ <i>nn so</i> , here;	Δ <i>so v-tí</i> , unto.
Δ <i>nn súð</i> , yonder.	Δ <i>so foíl</i> , yet; awhile.
Δ <i>n-deas</i> , southward.	Δ <i>so h-iomlan</i> , altogether.
Δ <i>naice</i> , near.	Δ <i>so léir</i> , entirely.

MAR AON LE, together with.
NO **GO**, until.
O SÓIN ALE, from that time out.
OS CIÖNN, above.
SÍOS, downwards.
SOIR, eastwards.

SUAS, upwards.
THALL, on the other side; beyond. (See **AÖUS**.)
CAMALL, awhile.
TUILLE EILE, besides; moreover.

II. PREPOSITIONS.

1. The following is a list of the simple prepositions:—

A or **I**, in; as **A MBÁILE**, in the town.
A, out of, or from (unusual); as **A MUMAIN**, out of Munster.
AS or **AIS**, at, with.
AIR, **AR**, upon.
ANN, **IN**. This takes **s** before the article. (See page 17.)
AR, out of.
CHUM, to or towards, for the purpose of.
DAR, used in swearing, equivalent to by: **DAR MO ÓRIA-CÁR**, “by my word.”
DO, to. **DE**, from, off, of.
EADAR, the same as **Ibip**.
FÁ or **FAOI**, under.
GAN, without.
GO, towards, along with. It takes **s** before the article **an**; as **GUS AN D-CIG**, to the house.

I, the same as **A**.
AR, after. It takes **s** before the article (**An**), and becomes **ARS**.
DOI, between.
IM, the same as **UM**.
LE or **RE**, with. It takes **s** before the article (**An**), and then becomes **LEIS** or **RIS**.
MAR, like, as.
O, from.
OS, over, above.
RE, **RIA**, before. It takes **s** before the article (**An**).
SEAC, beyond, besides.
TAR, over, across. It takes **s** before the article (**An**), and then becomes **TARS**.
TRÉ, through. It takes **s** before the article, and then becomes **TRÉS**.
TRÍO, the same as **TRÉ**.
UM or **IM**, about.

2. Some of the simple prepositions are amalgamated with the personal and possessive pronouns, for which see pages 41, 45.

3. Besides the simple prepositions, there are in Irish a number of compound prepositions. Each of these consists of a simple preposition followed by a noun; and in many of them the initial of the noun is eclipsed by the influence of the simple

preposition. In some cases the preposition has dropped out and only the noun remains.

4. The following is a list of the most usual compound prepositions, with their meanings:—

Δ **ō-fiaðnáise**, in presence of.

Δ **ō-foðair**, with, along with.

Δ **ō-taoibh**, in regard to, concerning.

Δ **ō-timcheall**: see **tímcéall**,

Δ **Ṅ-ceann**, at the head of, at the end of, with regard to.

Δ **Ṅ-coinne**, against, for (in the phrase to go for): **Ricir** Δ **Ṅ-coinne** Δ **céile**, “they run against each other:” **do** **cúairt** **sé** Δ **Ṅ-coinne** Δ **aðar**, he went for his father.

Δ **Ṅ-cois**, by the side of, hard by, along. This is often contracted to **cois**: **cois** na **Briðe**, “beside the (river) Bride.”

Δ **h-aiclé**, after: Δ **h-aiclé** na **laoroe** **sin**, “after that lay.”

Δ **meass**, amongst: **sios** Δ **meass** na **Ṅ-coillteas**, “down amongst the woods.”

Δ **láðair**, in presence of.

Δ **ir** **aðair**, forward, over against, opposite: **dul** **ir** **aðair**, to go forward, to progress: **ir** **aðair** na **gaoithe**, opposite (exposed to) the wind.

Δ **ir** **béalaib**, in front of, opposite: **do** **lurðois** **do** **gnáð** Δ **n-iondáib** Δ **béalaib** Δ **n-aðar**, “they used to lie. customarily, in beds opposite their father” (Children of Lir).

Δ **ir** **bun**, on foundation.

Δ **ir** **céann**, for (in the phrase to go for); as Δ **dubairt** **Naise** le **h-Ardán** **dul** **ir** **céann Fergusis**, “Naisi said to Ardan to go for Fergus.”

Δ **ir** **feað**, through, throughout, during: **ir** **feað** **bliaðna**, “during a year.”

Δ **ir** **fuo**, throughout, amongst Δ **ir** **fuo** na **Ṅ-tonn**, amongst the waves.

Δ **ir** **Ṅ-cúl**, behind.

Δ **ir** **son**, for the sake of, although.

Δ **n-ðiðr**, after: Δ **n-ðiðr** Δ **céile**, after one another, one after another.

Cois, contracted from Δ **Ṅ-cois**.

Dála, as to: **dála** **blánaid**, “as to Blanaid.”

D'éis, after: **d'éis** na **vílinne**, “after the deluge.”

D'ionnsaigir or **d'ionnsaighe**, towards: **gluaiseas** **róime** **d'ionnsaighe** **aluinge**, “he goes forward towards his ship.”

Doćum, towards.

Do Réir, according to.

So nuige, unto, until.

So ṭ-tí, to, unto, as far as: siubail so ṭ-tí an ṭorus, walk to the door,

iomčúsa, as to: iomčúsa Fhinn, "as to Finn."

Fá ḡuairim, towards.

Láim le or láim re, near, by, beside: surd láim liom, sit near me; láim re beannaithe boirče, "beside Beanna Boirche."

Os cionn, over, above : GRAÖUIΣ DIA OS CIONN SAĆ UILE NIÖ, "love God above all things;" RO ÉIRIG OS CIONN AN ŠAOI, "he rose over the spear."

I ſ-cionn, the same as A ſ-ceann: I ſ-cionn na bliadna, "at the end of the year."

TAR ċeann, besides, for the sake of, beyond, in preference to.

TAR AIS, backwards; same as AIR AIS.

TAR éis, after; the same as ṭéis: TAR éis na Samhna, "after the Samhain (1st of November)."

Timčeall, about, around: teacht timčeall Óhiarmaða, "to go around Dermat."

Os comair, in presence of, before the face of: os comair Fhinn, "in presence of Finn."

III. CONJUNCTIONS.

1. There are few simple conjunctions in the Irish language.

2. There are, however, many compound conjunctions, much like the English conjunctive phrases, "for the reason that," "to the end that," &c.

3. Generally speaking, the meanings of the compound conjunctions may be easily gathered from the signification of the words that compose them; but there are a few whose meanings are not so plain.

4. The following is a list of the simple conjunctions with their meanings, together with those of the compound conjunctions whose meanings are not quite obvious.

Δċt, but, except.	Sur, that: formed of the preceding and ro: see p. 58.
Δċt čeānā, but however.	Ioná, iná: see ná.
Agus, and; often contracted to a's, as, and 's.	Ionnus so, in order that, so that.
Air an aðbár sin, wherefore.	Má, if.
An, an interrogative particle: an ö-fuil sí slán? Is she well?	Má tā so, although that.
Ar, the same as the last, only used with the past tense. See. p. 58.	MAR, as: see muna.
bíod, although: it is really the third singular imperative of the verb tám.	Muna, if not, unless; often written mur, and even (corruptly) MAR.
Cíð: see tíð.	Maiseað, if so, well then.
Cóm, as.	MAR sin, MAR so, in that manner, in this manner: thus.
Óá, if: sometimes written óá mo.	Ná, than: see ioná.
Oo brið, because.	Ná, nor, not.
Oo cum so, in order that.	No, or: often pronounced nú in Munster.
Fós, yet, moreover.	O, since, seeing that, because.
Sið, or síðeað, although.	O čárla, since, whereas.
So, that.	Oir, because.
Sonað aire sin, wherefore.	Sul, before.
	Uime sin, therefore, wherefore.

IV. INTERJECTIONS.

1. The following is a list of the most common interjections. Besides these there are many interjectional expressions somewhat like the English, “O shame!” “Alack! and well-a-day!” but it is not necessary to enumerate them:—

A, the sign of the vocative case, usually translated O.
As truað, alas! what pity!
Eist, hush! list
FARAOR, FARAOIR, alas
FARAOIR geur, alas! O sharp sorrow!
Féac, see ! behold
MAIRG, woe! O sad!

Monáire, O shame!
Monuar, alas! woe is me!
Mo čruað: see as truað.
Oč, uč, alas!
Ocón, or ucón, alas! written očán or ucán in old writings.
Olaȝón, alas!

CHAPTER VII.

PREFIXES AND AFFIXES.

1. There are in Irish, as in other languages, prefixes and affixes, which modify the meanings of words.

I. PREFIXES.

1. The following is a list of the principal prefixes with their meanings: it will be observed that many of them have a double form, which arises from conformity to the rule **caol le caol &c.**

2. Most of these are inseparable particles; but a few are also employed independently as separate words.

Ais or **eis**, back or again, like English *re*: as **ioC**, payment; **aisioC**, repayment, restitution: **eirz̄e**, rising; **eiseirz̄e** resurrection.

Aṁ or **aiṁ**, a negative particle, like English *un*: as **réiō**, open, clear; **aiṁréiō**, difficult, rough.

An, an intensitive particle: as **luat̄z̄áireac̄**, joyful ; as **an-luat̄z̄áireac̄**, overjoyed.

An or **ain**, a negative particle, like English *un*: as **cráč** time; **an-cráč**, untimely: **mían**, desire; **ainmían**, evil desire.

Ač, a reiterative, like English *re*: as **ráō**, a saying; **ačráō**, a repetition.

Ač has sometimes the meaning of English *dis* in *dismantle*: as **cumA**, a form; **ačcumAō**, to deform, to destroy; **riogz̄Aō**, to crown or elect a king; **aičriogz̄Aō**, to dethrone.

bán, feminine (from **bean**, a woman); as **eačlač**, a messenger; **bán-eačlač** or **bam-eačlač**, a female messenger.

bíč or **bioč**, lasting, constant: as **beó**, living; **bíčbeó**, everlasting.

Cóm, equal: English *co* or *con*: as **AIMSEAR**, time; **CÓM-AIMSEARAĆ**, contemporary.

Deas, **deis**, good: as **blas**, taste; **DEASBLAS**, good or pleasant taste.

Oí, **vío**, a negative, like English *dis*: as **CÉILLRÓE**, wise; **VÍ-CÉILLRÓE**, foolish: **ceann**, a head; **VÍCEANNAV**, to behead.

Oroć, **vroic**, bad or evil: as **obair**, a work; **OROC-OBAIR** an evil work.

Do and **so** are opposites, as are also often the letters **d** and **s**. **Do** denotes difficulty, or ill, or the absence of some good or positive quality: as **FACSEANAC** or **SOFACSEANAC**, visible; **DO-FACSEANAC**, invisible: **volás**, tribulation; **sólás**, comfort: **donas**, ill luck; **sonas**, good luck: **DO-ĐEUNTA**, hard to be done; **SO-ĐEUNTA**, easy to be done: **duđac**, sad; **subđac**, merry.

Ea, a negative, often causing eclipsis: as **DAINGEAN**, strong; **EA-DAINGEAN**, weak: **CÓIR**, just; **EAJS CÓIR**, injustice: **TROM**, heavy; **EA-VTROM**, light.

Eas, a negative: as **ONÓIR**, honour; **EASONÓIR**, dishonour: **slán**, healthful; **EASTLÁN**, sick: **CAIRDEAS**, friendship; **EAS-CAIRDEAS**, enmity.

Fo, under: as **DUINE**, a man; **FO-DUINE**, an *under-man*, a common man, a servant.

FRIC, against, back, *contra*: as **buille**, a stroke; **FRICBUILLE**, a back stroke: **bac**, a hook; **FRIOČBAC**, a back-hook, a barb.

ll, **iol**, many: as **IOMAD**, much; **ILIOMAD**, sundry, various: **DAĆ**, a colour; **IOLODAC**, many coloured: **FAOBBAR**, an edge; **IOLFAOBBAR**, many-edged weapons.

In, **ion**, fit: as **ĐEUNTA**, done; **IN-ĐEUNTA**, fit to be done: **RAIĆTE**, said; **ION RAIĆTE**, fit to be said.

Lán, full, used as an intensitive: as **AJÖBÉIL**, vast; **LÁNAJÖ-BÉIL**, awfully vast.

Leać, half: as **UAIR**, an hour; **LEAĆUAIR**, half an hour. This word is also used to denote one of a pair: thus **suit**, an eye; **LEAĆ-SÚIL** (literally *half an eye*), one of two eyes. See “Idiom, No. 13.”

Mí, **míó**, a negative: as **MEAS**, respect; **MIMEAS**, disrespect: **CÓMAIRLE**, advice; **MIOČOMAIRLE**, evil advice.

Neam̄, **neim̄**, a negative: as **COIMSIĆE**, comprehensible; **NEAM̄COMSIĆE**, incomprehensible: **nirō**, a thing; **NEIM̄-NIRÔ**, nothing.

Reum̄, before, like English *pre*: as **RAIĆTE**, said; **REUM RAIĆTE**, aforesaid.

Ro, an intensitive particle: as **mór**, great; **RÓ-MÓR**, very great.

SÁR, an intensive particle: as **mAÍČ**, good; **SÁR-mAÍČ**, very good.

SO, **soi**, the opposite to **DO**, denotes apt, easy, good: as **DEARBČA**, proved; **SOIRDEARBČA**, easily proved.

UR or **ÚIR**, an intensive particle: as **ÍSEAL**, low; **ÚIRÍSEAL**, very low, humble, mean, vile.

II. AFFIXES OR TERMINATIONS.*

1. The following is a list of the principal affixes or terminations, with their meanings; but it does not include inflectional terminations, which are all given in connection with declensions and conjugations.

AC, when it is the termination of an adjective, means full of, abounding in, like the English *y* and *ous*, with the former of which it seems cognate; as **DRAIGEAN**, the black-thorn; **DRAIGEANAČ**, abounding in black-thorn: **BRIAČAR**, a word; **BRIAČTRAČ**, wordy, talkative.

AC, as the termination of a noun, generally denotes a personal agent; as **CÚMÁČD**, power: **CÚMÁČDÁČ**, a mighty person: **CONNAČTÁČ**, a native of Connaught.

ACT, an abstract termination, like the English *ness* and *ty* (in *probity*): as **CARTANAČ**, charitable; **CARTANAČT**, charity; **MÓR** and **MÓRĐA**, great; **MÓRĐAČT**, greatness.

AIÖE, **UIÖE**, or **IÖE**, a personal termination, denoting a doer; as **COS**, a foot; **COISIÖE**, a walker: **TIOMÁN**, drive; **TIOMÁN-AIÖE**, a driver.

AIRE or **IRE**, a personal termination, denoting an agent or doer; as **LORG**, a track; **LORGAIRE**, a tracker: **CEALG**, guile; **CEALGAIRE**, a deceiver.

AMAIL has the same meaning as the English *like* and *ly*: as **FЛАIC**, a prince; **FЛАICЕAMAIL**, princely.

AN, a diminutive termination, but it has now nearly lost its diminutive sense ; as **LOČ** a lake ; **LOČÁN**, a small lake.

AS or **EAS**, and sometimes the letter **s** alone, a termination denoting abstract quality, like **ACT**; as **AOIBHNN**, delightful;

* For a full account of these terminations see the author's "Origin and History of Irish Names of Places." Second series, Chaps. I. and II.

AOIÓNEAS, delightfulness or delight: ceann, a head; **CÉAN-**nas, headship, authority.

BHAR and **BRÉ** have a collective or cumulative sense; as **DUILLE**, a leaf; **DUILLEABHAR**, foliage: **DÁIR**, an oak; **DÁIRBRE**, a place of oaks.

CHAR has a collective sense like the last; as **BEANN**, a peak or gable; **BEANNCAR**, abounding in peaks or gables.

DE, an ancient adjectival termination, has much the same meaning as the English *ful* and *ly* (in *manly*). In the modern language it is varied to the forms **DÁ**, **DÁ**, and **TÁ**; as **MÓR**, great; **MÓRÓA**, majestic: **FEAR**, a man; **FEARÓA**, manly: **MÍLE**, a champion; **MÍLEATÁ**, champion-like, knightly.

E denotes abstract quality, like **AČT**; as **FINN**, fair or white; **FINNE**, fairness: **BOG**, soft; **BUISE**, softness.

In, a diminutive termination. This may be said to be the only diminutive that still retains its full force in the living language; and it is much used in Ireland even where Irish is not spoken. **BÓČAR**, a road; **BÓČAIRÍN** (*bohereen*), a little road: *crusk*, a pitcher; *cruiskeen*, a little pitcher.

LAC, **NAC**, **RAC**, **TAC**, **TRAC**, have all the same meaning as **AČ**, namely, full of, abounding in ; as **BRIS**, break; **BRISLEAC**, a breach, a complete defeat: **MUC**, a pig; **MUCLAC**, a piggery: **LUACAIR**, rushes; **LUACARNAČ**, a rushy place: **BOG**, a bog or soft place; **BOGRAC**, a place full of bogs: **COILL**, a wood; **COILTEAC**, a woody place. These seem to be cognate with the terminations in the English words *poult-ry*, *varie-ty*, &c.

MHAR means abounding in, like the English *ful* and *ly*; as **BRIS**, power; **BRIOŠMAR**, powerful.

OZ, a diminutive termination; as **CÍAR**, black; **CÍAROZ**, a black little animal (a clock): **SABAL**, a fork; **SABALÓZ**, a little fork.

OIR, or **DÓIR**, or **TÓIR**, denotes an agent or doer, the same as the English *er* in *reaper*; as **BUAIL**, strike; **BUAILTEÓIR**, a thresher: **COINNEAL**, a candle; **COINNLEÓIR**, a candlestick: **SPÉAL**, a scythe; **SPÉALA'DÓIR**, a mower.

RE has a collective signification, like **BHAR**; as **BEUL**, the mouth; **BÉLRE**, language, speech.

SEAC is used as a sort of feminine termination; as **SALL**, an Englishman; **SAILLSEAC**, an Englishwoman: **ÓINSEAC**, a female fool (from an old root **ón**, whence the old word **ÓN-MIC**, a fool, the equivalent of the modern **AMADÁN**).

TAC and **TRAC**: see **LAC**.

PART III.

SYNTAX.*

CHAPTER I.

NOUNS.

1. When two nouns come together signifying different things, the second one is in the genitive case; as *gut gáðair*, the voice of a hound; *i b-flaicios Ereann*, “in the sovereignty of Erin;” *bárr ná h-inse*, the top of the island.

The noun in the genitive always follows the noun that governs it.

2. When the genitive noun is singular masculine, its initial is aspirated if the article is used; as *mac an fir*, the son of the man. (See pages 17, 18, for this rule and its exceptions).

3. When the article is not used with the governed noun in the singular number, the initial of the latter is generally not aspirated (except in the case mentioned in next Rule); as *Conall i g-crochaitb báis*, “Conall in the forms of *death*;” *a n-dólás bróithe a's péine*, “in the sorrow of *bondage* and of *pain*.”

* Several of the rules of Syntax have been unavoidably anticipated in Orthography and Etymology, as they are in every Irish Grammar. These rules will be referred to in their proper places in this Syntax, or repeated when thought necessary.

4. When the noun in the genitive is a proper name, its initial is generally aspirated, even though the article is not used; as *slioc̄t Ghaoisil*, “the race of Gaodhal;” *cloiðeamh Mhanannain*, “the sword of Manannan.”

Exception :—In this case, *v* and *c* often resist aspiration (p. 34); as *Eire ingean Óealbhaoič*, “Eire, the daughter of Dealbhaoth.”

5. If the governed noun be in the genitive plural, its initial is eclipsed with the article, (for which see page 18); and the initial is generally aspirated, if the article is not used; as *Óaingēn māc n-Uirneac̄*, “the fortress of [the] sons of Usna;” *buiðeān cūrað*, “a company of knights;” *ðiás bān*, “two women” (or rather “a pair of women”).

Even in the absence of the article however, an eclipse sometimes occurs; as *nāoi nāonbār vo bī ag teac̄t Óíarraio cíora agus cána b-fear n-Eirionn*, “nine times nine persons who were coming to demand the taxes and tributes of *the men of Erin*.”

Sometimes also, in the absence of the article, the noun in the genitive plural is neither aspirated nor eclipsed.

6. When two nouns come together signifying the same thing (or in apposition), they generally agree in case; as *Nuadha Aírgiolám māc Eac̄taiḡ mic Eadarlaim*, “Nuadha Silver-hand, son of Eachtach, son of Eadarlamh;” *na v-crí b-Finneamna, māc Eočaio*, “of the three Finnavnas, sons of Eochad.”

Here, in the first example, *Nuadha* is nominative, and so is *māc*, which is in apposition to it; *Eac̄taiḡ* is genitive, and so is the next word, *mic*, which is in apposition to it. In the second example, *Finneamna* is in the genitive (plural), and *māc* also, in apposition to it, is in the genitive (plural).

For exceptions to this Rule, see “Idioms,” No. 33, p. 129. See also next rule.

7. The last rule is not always observed: departures from it are sometimes found, even in good Irish writings; as, *fáinniðe buiðe órða mar*

ÞÍRÉAD ÆR MhÁIRE, bEAN SHEASAM AN FÍSÉADÓRA, “yellow gold rings as used-to-be on Mary, wife of John (the son of) the weaver;” CÁINIC RIŞ CHIAR-RUIRE LUACRA Þ'FÍOS A COMÓDALTA, EAÐON, CIAN MAC OILIOLLA, “the King of Kerry-Luachra came to visit his foster-son, that is, Cian, the son of Oilioll: DO ĀRIALL (OSCAR) A G-COINNE MHEARGAIS MIRE, AN TRÉAN LEOMAN “Oscar went to meet the furious Meargach, *the strong lion.*”

The first example exhibits a disagreement in case between **MhÁIRE** and **bEAN**, which are in apposition, the former being dative (after **ÆR**), the latter nominative (its dative would be **mnaoi**, p. 29). In the second example **COMÓDALTA** is genitive (after the infinitive, Eule 15, p. 112), and **CIAN**, in apposition to it, is nominative (its genitive would be **Cém**). In the last example **MHEARGAIS** is genitive, and **LEOMAN**, in apposition to it, is nominative. This last example however, seems properly to belong to a class of exceptions to Rule 7 which are explained further on (“Idioms:” No. 33, page 129).

8. A noun used adjectively in English is commonly expressed in Irish by a genitive case; as English, “a gold ring,” Irish, **FÁINNE ÓIR**, a ring of gold. This form of expression is very common in Irish; as **FEAR ÞLÍSE**, a lawyer; literally “a man of law.”

9. Collective nouns are singular in form, and as such they take the singular form of the article (when the article is used); but they are plural in signification, and as such they generally take adjectives and pronouns in the plural number, and also verbs in the plural, when, in accordance with Par. 9, p. 50, the plural form of the verb is used; as, **NOCTUIÐ AN FUIREANN SÍN**, “that company disclose;” **TANGAÐAR AN ÞUÍÐEAN CURAÐ SÍN DO LÁÇAIR FHINN**, **AZUS DO ÞEANNUIÑ SIAÐ DO**, “that company of knights came to the presence of Finn, and *they saluted him.*”

The personal nouns from **DIAR** to **DEICNEAÐAR**, mentioned at page 39, follow this rule: as **DO ÞAÐAR AN DIAR SÍN GO H-IMREASNAÐ**, “that pair were at strife.”

10. Nouns denoting a part commonly take **de** with the dative of the nouns (or pronouns) of which they form a part; as **gáðar d'ár ngsáðaráib**, “a hound of our hounds;” **aon cár díob**, “one berry of them;” **gac duine de'n pobul**, “each person of the people.”

11. The personal nouns from **dias** to **deicneabár** inclusive (p. 39,) and also **teóra**, three, generally govern nouns in the genitive plural; as **dias báin**, “two (of) women;” **a tríur mac agus a d-tíur báin**, “his three sons and their three wives;” **teóra báin**, “three women;” **náonbár caoiseac**, “nine chieftains.”

But they sometimes take **de** with the dative as in last rule; as **náoi náonbáp do maoraiib na b-Fómorač**, “nine times nine of the stewards of the Fomorians;” **mo óis mac, mo óis d'fearaiib**, “my two sons, my two men.”

CHAPTER II.

THE ARTICLE AND NOUN.

1. The article agrees with its noun in number, gender, and case; as **an fear**, the man; **na circe**, of the hen; **na bá**, the cows.

2. For the influence of the article on the noun, see p. 17.

3. When one noun governs another in the genitive, the article can be used only with the latter. Thus, in English we can say “the age of the world” (using the definite article with each noun); but in Irish, the corresponding expression is, **aois an domáin**, not, **an aois an domáin**.

Exception:—When a demonstrative pronoun follows the governing noun, or when the two nouns come together as a compound word, the governing noun may take the article; as **an t-orde múinte**, the teacher; **má do b'eir tú an oiread sin túinn 'san ló ro na n-deór**, “if thou givest

so much to us in this day of tears." Here the article is used before both *ló* and *deór*. *TANGAÐAR ARÍS I N-EIRINN AN SHLOCT SO SHIMEON BHRIC*, "these descendants of Simon Brec came again into Erin:" here the article is used before *shloct*, the governing noun.

4. When a possessive pronoun is used with the genitive noun, the article cannot be used with either; thus, "the house of my father" is *TEAC M' AÇAR*, not *AN TEAC M' AÇAR*.

The peculiarity noticed in the last two rules exists also in English when the possessive case is used, i.e., the article can be used only with the possessive noun; as the world's age; my father's house.

5. When a demonstrative pronoun is used with a noun, the article is also used; as *AN FEAR SIN*, that man, literally "the man that;" *NA MNÁ ÚD*, yonder women: literally "the women yonder."

6. The article is used before the names of some countries and cities, where the definite article would not be used in English; as *MOENAN, ABB CAÇRAC FURRA ISIN FRAINC, DEUG*, "Moenan, abbot of Caher Fursa, in (the) France, died;" *CRUAÇA NA H-EIREANN, THE STACKS OF (THE) ERIN;* *TUASCEART NA H-ASIA*, "the north of (the) Asia." There is in Irish also a form of phrase corresponding to the English "the mighty Hector;" as *AN T-OSCAR ÁS*, "the noble Oscar."

7. When an adjective is predicated of a noun by the verb *is* (in any of its forms), the article is used with the noun (but in the corresponding expression in English the definite article would not be used); as *IS MAIC AN FEAR É*, he is a good man: literally "he is the good man."

8. The Irish article is used before abstract nouns much more commonly than the English definite article; as *AN T-OCRUS*, the hunger; *TRÍ NIÖ DO CÍM:—AN PEACAO, AN BÁR, A'S AN PIÁN*, "three things I see, *the sin, the death, and the pain.*"

CHAPTER III.

THE ADJECTIVE AND NOUN.

1. Adjectives denoting fulness or a part of anything may take either the dative after *voe* or the genitive; as (dative after *voe*):—*ΙΩΙΡ ΌΑ ӨАРАИЛ* *lán voe leann*, “between two barrels full of ale;” *ΤΑ МЕ LÁN VO nÁIRE*, “I am full of shame;” *MÓRÁN Θ'УАІСЛІВ*, “many of nobles:” (genitive):—*LÁN A ӨUІRN*, “the full of his fist;” *AN RAIВ MÓRÁN AIRSIО AIGE*, “had he much of *money*? ” *CRAOВ DRAOIЖIN AГУS A LÁN AIRNEAД UIRRE*, “a branch of blackthorn and its full of *sloes* on it.”

2. The adjective in the comparative degree takes *ná* (or *iná* or *ioná*) before the noun which follows it; as *IS BINNE A CEÓL nÁ LON 'SNÁ SMÓL*, “sweeter is her voice (music) than the blackbird and than the thrush.”

Exception:—If the adjective in the comparative degree has *voe* (“of it”) after it (see Idiom 39, p. 132), then *ná* is not used; as *NAС BU FEIRRVOE ӨÓІВ É*, “that they would be none the better of it.”

AGREEMENT AND COLLOCATION OF THE ADJECTIVE AND NOUN.

FIRST CASE: When the adjective is joined immediately with the noun.

When the adjective is joined immediately with the noun as a qualifying or limiting term (as in the English “a high tower”), in this case the following **ten** rules apply.

1. The natural position of the adjective is after its noun; as *CAВЛАС MÓR*, “a great fleet.”

The chief exceptions to this are stated in the next two rules.

2. Monosyllabic adjectives are often placed before their nouns; as **caol-fear**, “slender man;” **mór fáirrse**, “great sea;” **duibh-ċarrais**, “black rock.”

3. This is especially the case with the following adjectives, some of which are hardly ever used after their nouns: **deas**, good; **ofoch**, evil; **fíor**, true; **nuaḋ**, new; **sean**, old; **cuac**, left-handed.

Numeral adjectives form another exception, for which see next chapter.

4. When a name consists of two words, the adjective comes between them; as **Sliaḃ ḥaḃdál-móp luacra**, “the tremendous-large Slieve Louher;” **eamuin míń álúinn Maċċa**, “the smooth beautiful Eman Macha.”

5. When the adjective follows its noun, it agrees with it in gender, number, and case; as **fear maič**, a good man; **sgéul ná mná móire**, “the story of the large woman” (gen. sing, fem.); **ař an airobéis iongantais**, “on the wonderful abyss” (dat. sing. fem.).

6. When the adjective follows its noun, the initial of the adjective is aspirated under the circumstances already stated in Par. 6, page 10; or eclipsed in the circumstance stated in Par. 3, page 34.

7. When two or more nouns are joined together, and are followed by an adjective which qualifies or limits them, all and each, the adjective agrees with the last: in other words, it is the last noun only that influences the adjective both in grammatical inflection, and in initial change; as **bean agus fear maič**, a good woman and man; **fear agus bean maič**, a good man and woman.

8. When the adjective precedes the noun, as in Rules 2 and 3, above, it does not agree with the noun, i.e., it is not influenced by the noun,

either as to inflection, or as to initial change; in other words, the simple form of the adjective is used, whatever be the number, gender, or case of the noun; as *mór uaisle*, “great nobles;” *do mór uaislīb*, “to [the] great nobles;” *bán cnoic Eireann*, “the fair hills of Erin;” *luac tárca*, swift barks; *fíor sgeul*, “a true story;” *fíor sgeulca*, “true stories.”

9. When the adjective precedes the noun, the adjective and the noun are sometimes regarded as one compound word; and the initial of the noun is aspirated (in accordance with Par. 4, page 10): also the vowel of the adjective is often modified by the rule *cáol le cáol &c.*; as *Deirdre an Duibh-shliabh*, “Deirdre of Dubh-Shliabh;” *óig-bean*, a young woman.

10. When the adjective precedes the noun, the initial of the adjective is subject to the same changes as if the adjective and the noun formed one word, i.e., one noun; as *gáire na n-óig-fear*, “the laughter of the young men;” *an t-árd-ollamh sin*, “that chief professor;” *an t-sean-bean bocht*, “the poor old woman.”

SECOND CASE: When the adjective is connected with the noun by a verb.

When the adjective, instead of being joined immediately with the noun, is predicated of, or ascribed to, the noun by a verb of any kind (as in the English, “the man is tall,” “he considered the man tall,” “he made the knife sharp,” “the roads were made straight”), in this case, the following **three** rules apply.

1. When an adjective is predicated of a noun by the verb *tá*, it follows the noun, the order being:—verb, noun, adjective; as *tá an lá breáig*, the day is fine.

2. When an adjective is predicated of a noun

by the verb *is*, it precedes the noun, the order being:—verb, adjective, noun; as *is b्रeά᷍ an lā é*, it is a fine day.

3. When an adjective is ascribed to a noun by a verb of any kind, the adjective does not agree with the noun, i.e., the adjective is not influenced by it, either initially or inflectionally; in other words, the simple form of the adjective, without inflection, is used, whatever be the number or gender of the noun; and the initial of the adjective is neither aspirated nor eclipsed (unless under the influence of some other word), as *is aibinn ḫo čuain acas ḫo čalapuirt acas ḫo mā᷍a mínscoč-ača cæmáilne*, “delightful are thy harbours, and thy bays, and thy flowery lovely plains:” *a᷍us croicne réitēa᷍ ar nA n-θačú᷍a᷍ ṭeargas*, “and rams’ skins dyed red.”—(Exodus, xxv. 5).

The first example (from the story of the Children of Usna), exhibits both an agreement according to Rule 5, page 101, and a disagreement according to the present rule. For the three nouns are plural, and the two last adjectives which qualify them directly are in the plural form, while the first adjective *aibinn* (modern *aibinn*) which is asserted of them by *is*, is in its simple form (the plural would be *aibinne* or *aibne*). In the second example *croicne* is plural, while *ṭeargas* is singular (plural *ṭearṣa*).

Observe the difference in meaning in the following, according to agreement or disagreement:—*Do riȝne sé nA braic ḫlasa*; *do riȝne sé nA braic ḫlas*: in the first the adjective agrees with the noun, (both being plural), showing that it qualifies it directly (Rule 5, p. 101) and that the meaning is, “he made the green mantles;” in the second there is no agreement, (the adjective being singular and the noun plural), showing that the adjective is connected with the noun by the verb (Rule 3 above), and that the meaning is, “he made the mantles green.”

CHAPTER IV.

NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

1. A numeral adjective, whether cardinal or ordinal, when it consists of one word, goes before its noun; as *TRÍ FIR*, three men; *sAN DARA h-ÁIT*, “in the second place.”

2. Numeral adjectives, both cardinal and ordinal, from 11 to 19 inclusive, take their nouns between the simple numeral and *DÉAS*; as *TRÍ CAPAILL DÉAS*, thirteen horses; *AN TREAS CÁPALL DÉAS*, the thirteenth horse.

3. *AON*, one; *DÁ*, two; *CÉAD*, first; and *TREAS*, third, cause aspiration; as *AON FEAR*, one man; *DÁ MNAOI*, two women; *AN TREAS FEAČT*, “the third occasion.”

4. The numerals *SEACHT*, *OCHT*, *NAOI*, and *DEIC*, cause eclipsis (except the noun begins with *s*, in which case there is no change), as *SEACHT m-BLIADNÁ*, “seven years;” *OCHT m-BÁ*, “eight cows;” *NAOI N-AIBNE*, “nine rivers;” *DEIC B-FIR*, “ten men.”

5. The numerals *TRÍ*, *CEITRE*, *CÚIS*, *SÉ*, the ordinals (except *CÉAD* and *TREAS*: Rule 3 above), and the multiples of ten, cause no initial change; as *CEITRE GÁDÁIR*, “four hounds.”

6. *AON*, one, and all the multiples of ten, take their nouns in the singular number; as *AON LÁ*, one day; *CÉAD CEANN*, a hundred heads (lit. “a hundred head,” just as we say “a hundred head of cattle”); *TRÍ CAOISAD LAOČ*, “three times fifty heroes;” *MÍLE BEAN*, “a thousand women.”

7. **ÞÁ**, two, takes both the article and the noun in the singular number; and if the noun be feminine, it will be in the dative form; as **ÞÁ FEAR**, two men; **AN ÞÁ LÁIM**, the two hands. (See next two rules).

8. If the noun following **ÞÁ** be in the genitive, it will be in the genitive plural; as **LÁN A ÞÁ LÁM**, “the full of his two hands.”

9. Although **ÞÁ** takes the article and noun in the singular, yet the adjectives and pronouns referring to the noun will be in the plural, and the noun may also take a plural verb; as **DO ŽLUAISEADAR AN ÞÁ ČRÉINMÍLEAO SIN**, “these two strong heroes went;” **RO ŽAÐ A ÞÁ SLEAS ČRÓ-FAIRRINGE ČRANN-REAMRA AR NA Õ-POČRUŽAÐ A Õ-FUIL NAČRAČ NEIME**, “he took his two wide-socketed thick-handled spears, *they* having been bathed in the blood of serpents.” Here the two adjectives and the pronoun referring to **SLEAS**, are plural.

CHAPTER V.

THE PRONOUN.

I. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

1. Personal pronouns agree with the nouns they represent, in gender, number, and person; as **IS MAIT AN ÕEAN Í**, she is a good woman; **IS MAIT AN FEAR É**, he is a good man; **IS MÓR NA ÑAOINE IAÐ**, they are great men.

2. A personal pronoun, or a possessive pronoun, which stands for a sentence or part of a sentence, is

third person singular masculine; as *ᚢ́A m-béiríS FIR EIREANN AN ḲAR n-AṄAIጀ, nAC bu feirrde ṽóib é*, “if the men of Erin were against you, they would not be the better of it;” (here the pronoun é stands for the sentence).

3. The accusative forms of the personal pronouns are often used as nominatives: always with *is* (see Rule 18, p. 113), and with passive verbs (see Rule 20, p. 113); and sometimes with other verbs; as *mÁS mAiC nA leaጀA sib, AR eisíon*, “‘if ye are the good physicians,’ says *he*.”

II. POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

1. A possessive pronoun is never used without a noun.

In English there are distinct forms of the possessive pronouns which can stand without nouns (mine, thine, hers, &c), but there are no forms corresponding to these in Irish.

2. The possessive pronouns precede their nouns; as *mo mÁጀAIR*, my mother; *A ḫ-CARbAጀ*, their chariot.

3. The possessives *mo*, my; *vo*, thy; and *A*, his; aspirate the initials of their nouns; as *mo cEANN*, my head; *vo cos*, thy foot; *A meUR*, his finger.

4. The possessive *A*, her, requires the initial of its noun in its primitive state (neither aspirated nor eclipsed), and if the initial be a vowel, it prefixes *h*; as *A mÁጀAIR*, her mother; *A h-AጀAIR*, her father.

5. The possessives *ÁR*, our; *ႤAR*, your; and *A*, their; eclipse the initial consonants of their nouns (except *s*, on which they exert no influence), and prefix *n* to vowels; as *ÁR v-TÍR*, our country; *ႤAR m-bA*, your cows; *A n-AጀAIR*, their father.

6. Possessive pronouns amalgamated with prepositions (see p. 45) have the same influence over the initials of their nouns, as they have in their uncompounded state; as *doim croíde*, to my heart; *óna d-tír*, from their country.

7. The manner of using the emphatic increase after the possessive pronouns has been already pointed out in Par. 3, page 45. For an additional Rule of possessives, see Rule 2, page 105.

III. RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. The relative follows its antecedent and precedes its verb; as *an t-é a súibéalfas*, the person who shall walk.

2. The relative aspirates the initial of its verb; as *an laoč a mārō an t-ačač*, “the hero who slew the giant.” To this the next rule is an exception.

3. When the relative *a* signifies “all that” (see p. 47) it eclipses the initial of its verb; as *a b-fuil ó ḡhaillib buð d-eas*, “all that is from Galway southwards;” *do réir a n-dubramar*, “according to *what* we have said.”

4. When the relative *a* is governed by a preposition, expressed or understood, and is followed immediately by a verb to which it is not the nominative, the initial of the verb (except *s*) is eclipsed; as *a sé níð imorra dá d-táinic a bás* “(the following) is the circumstance, indeed, *from which came* his death;” *an boic ina n-ičiðis*, “the tent in which they used to eat;” *a duḃairt Fionn go n-viongnað (síč) gíð bé nós a n-viongnað Diarmaid í*, “Finn said that he would make (peace) in whatever manner Diarmaid would make it” (here the preposition *ann* is understood,

ՃIØ bÉ nÓS AñN A n-ØIONGNAØ DIARMAID Í, whatever the manner *in which* Diarmaid would make it.) (See next rule).

5. If, in the case stated in the last rule, the verb is in the past tense, with the particle **RO** or **DO**, the initial of the verb is not eclipsed, but aspirated (Pars. 1 and 4, p. 58); as ÁÍT AR ØUÍT DARA DEARG, “the place in which fell Dara Dearg.”

6. The relative precedes the verb which governs it in the accusative (as in English); as AN TÍR A ØRAØUÍSÍM, the country which I love.

7. As the relative has no inflection for case, the construction must determine whether the relative is the nominative to the verb which follows it, or is governed by it in the accusative; as AN CARA A ØRAØUÍSÍO MÉ, the friend whom I love; AN CARA A ØRAØUÍSÉAS MÉ, the friend who loves me.

8. The relative is often omitted both in the nominative and in the accusative; as OGЛАAOĆ DO MUINNTÍR NÍN MÍC PÉIL TÁINIC UAIØ DO ØRAZ NA EIRIONN, “a youth of the people of Nin Mac Peil (who) came from him to view Erin.” AN LEABHAR RO SCRIOB (CAMBRENSIS) DO ØUARASZBAIL EIRIONN, “the book (which) Cambrensis wrote on the history of Erin.”

9. The relative **A** is often disguised by combination with other words and particles, especially with **PO**, the mark of the past tense; as AN TÍR ÓR TÁINIC MÉ, “the country from which I came” (here ÓR = Ó A RO); PLÁIS LÉR MARBÁØ NOÍ MÍLE ØÍOB, “a plague, by which were killed nine thousand of them” (here LÉR = LE A RO); AN TÍR ØÁ Ø-TÁINIC SÉ, the country to which he came (ØÁ= ØO A); LÁ ØAR COMÓRAØ AONAC LE RIØ EIREANN, “a day on which was convoked an assembly by the king of Erin” (ØAR=ØO A RO); NÍ ØEAS LIOMSA AR

ſtloinneas fén mar eiric, “I do not think it little what I have named as an *eric*.” (Ar=a po, in which a means “all that;” Par. 3, page 47.)

IV. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. The demonstrative pronouns follow their nouns or pronouns; as an fear sin, that man; cia h-é sin? who is that?

Exception:—When the verb is in any of its forms is understood; as rúd bár g-curd, “yonder (is) your meal;” so an lá, this is the day.

2. If the noun be followed by one or more adjectives, the demonstrative pronoun comes last as cia an fear ballac binnbriatrac úd? “Who is that freckled sweet-worded man?”

V. INTERROGATIVE AND INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

1. An interrogative pronoun comes first in the sentence; as cá b-fuil mo leabhar? where is my book? cia an laoč úd ar gualainn ghoill? “who is that hero at the shoulder of Goll?”

This rule holds good even when the interrogative is governed by a preposition, i.e., the preposition follows the interrogative that it governs; as caidh ar tu? out of what (place art) thou? go de mar tá tu? how do you do? (literally “like to what art thou?”) creuð fá ar eirgeabár, “what for did ye rise?”

2. When uile precedes its noun, it means “every;” when it follows the noun it means “all;” as slán ón uile galar, “sound from every sickness;” go batað an cine daona uile go h-aon octrar, “all the human race was drowned, all to (except) a single eight.”

There are occasional exceptions; as drong ainfiosac is na h-uile suðáilcib, “people ignorant in *all* virtues” (in this passage from Keating, uile means “all” though it precedes its noun)

CHAPTER VI.

THE VERB.

1. As a general rule the verb precedes its nominative; as **do ḡluair Fergus**, “Fergus went;” **do claoisdeadh Mac Garraidh**, “Mac Garraidh was defeated.” (See next Rule.)

2. When the nominative is a relative or an interrogative pronoun, it precedes the verb; and sometimes also in poetry, the nominative, even though a noun, precedes the verb; as **an tē a ḡiuḃalpas**, the person who will walk; **creud atá annso?** what is here? **Deóraiōče síora ḡan sgič ḡan sos míanair a ṽ-tír ’s a n-ḃúċċas**, “perpetual exiles without pause or rest, long-for their country and their native-home.”

3. When the verb is transitive, i.e., when it governs the accusative (see Rule 9, p. 111), the usual order is verb, nominative, object ; as **do aigil Conchobair ḡorach**, “Conchobhar addressed Borach;” **do líon ḡráinne an corn**, “Grainne filled the goblet.”

4. But when the accusative is a relative or an interrogative pronoun, the usual order is, pronoun (or accusative), verb, nominative; as **an laoč a ḡonairc mé ané**, the hero whom I saw yesterday; **cád ḡeir tú?** what sayest thou?

5. When the verb **tá** is used, the usual order is, verb, nominative, predicate; as **táir ná reulta ro-lonnrač**, the stars are very bright.

6. When the verb **is**, expressed or understood, is used, the usual order is, verb, predicate, nominative; as **ba ḡinne a ḡlór ná ceól na n-éun**, “her voice

was sweeter than the music of the birds:" ní fáða uaít an áit, "not (is) far from thee the place."

Exception.—If the article is used before the predicate, or if the predicate is a proper name, the order is, verb, subject, predicate; as is tusa an tír ro-aoibhinn, "thou art the delightful country;" is mé Cían mac Cáinte, "I am Cian, the son of Cainte;" an tu Fionn? "art thou Finn?"

7. The only cases in which there is agreement between the verb and its nominative, are (1) when the nominative and verb are both third person singular; (2) when a noun or pronoun in third plural has a verb in third plural, in accordance with Par. 9, p. 50.

It may be doubted whether (1) is a genuine case of agreement; and the general absence of agreement between verb and nominative is further exemplified in the following rule.

8. When two or more nouns, whether singular or plural, joined by a conjunction, are nominatives to one verb, the verb has the third person singular form; as do ghluaís bpeas agus na draoiče rómpa, "Breas and the druids went forward."

9. A transitive verb governs the noun or pronoun which is the object of the action, in the accusative case; as buail é, strike him; do cùireadh-dar Tuatha Dé Danann ceó draoičeaccta i n-a o-timcheall féin, "the Tuatha de Dananns put a magical mist around themselves."

10. The initial of a verb in the infinitive mood is aspirated, unless the aspiration is prevented by some special influence. For such an influence see Par. 2, p. 60.

11. The preposition le or re before the infinitive active often gives it a passive signification; as (leabhair eile) atá re b-faicsin i n-eirinn, "(other books) which are *to be seen* in Erin."

But in many such constructions the preposition expresses purpose, and the signification is active; as agus go m-bíodh ollamh re déanam feille air a céile, "and that they are ready to do treachery on each other."

12. The infinitive, even without the preposition *le*, has often a passive signification; as **FIAČRA** *māc Eilene tisearna Mužðorn vo mārðað*, “Fiachra, son of Ailene, lord of Mourne, to be slain” (lit. “Fiachra, &c, to slay”): **A᷑SUS AN FEAR** *nāc tioðrað (an cíos) sín uðið, ašrón vo þuaðn óna čeann ve*, “and the man who would not pay that tribute from him, his nose to be cut off from his head.”

13. One verb governs another that follows it or depends upon it in the infinitive mood; as **DA** *m-bað nāc rāčfað clanna Moirne v'iarraið na* **S-CAOR** *sín*, “if it were so that the Clann Morna had not come to seek those berries.”

The following very important rule was first enunciated by O'Donovan, and is given here in his own words (“Irish Grammar,” p. 387.)

14. “When the governed verb is one expressing motion or gesture, which does not govern the accusative, the sign *do* is never prefixed; as **vuðairt** *sé liom dul go Corcaid*, he told me to go to Cork.”

15. If the noun which is the object of a transitive verb in the infinitive mood follows the verb, it is in the genitive case; as **tangadar caðlað mór** *vo v'éanam coðurð*, “a great fleet came to make war” (nom. *coðað*, war, gen. *coðurð*); **vo milleað** *čloinne lir*, “to kill the children of Lir.”

16. A noun or pronoun which is the object of a transitive verb in the infinitive mood often precedes the verb, and in this case it is (not in the genitive, as in the last rule, but) in the accusative; as, **A᷑SUS ISEAOÐ** *vo šnið, da čuaille vo cur i* **ð-tal-main** *a᷑sus ceann an t-snáicē vo čeangal da gač cuaille vloð, a᷑sus uballvo cur air mullač cuaille aca*, “and it is what he used to do, *two poles to put in the earth, and the end of a thread to tie to each pole of them, and an apple to put on the top of a pole of them.*”

17. The active participle of a transitive verb governs the noun which is the object of the action, in the genitive case; as *AS bRUIČNEAÐ AN ÓIR*, “smelting the gold” (lit. “smelting of the gold”); *DO ÓI AN GAOÐAL RO AS MÚNAÐ SCOL*, “this Gaodhal was teaching schools” (lit. “teaching of schools”); *AS TOCÁILC NA TALMAN*, “digging the ground.”

18. The verb *is* in any of its forms expressed or understood, takes the accusative form of a personal pronoun as its nominative; as *IS Í CÉADÓFÁÐ DROINGE RE SEANCUS*, “it is the opinion of some historians;” *IS MIC RIÑG SO FIRINNEAC ÍAÐ*, “they are truly sons of a king;” *ASUS FIAFRAIGEAS AN RIÑG CIA H-ÍAÐ FÉIN*, “and the king asks who *they* (are).”

19. The verb *is* is very often omitted, especially in negative and interrogative sentences, and in answers to questions; as *BEACHA AN STARAIDÉ FIRINNE*, “truth (is) the food of the historian;” *CÉANN ÓHÍARMUÐA UI ÓHUIBHNE AN CÉANN ÚÐ*, “that head (is) the head of Diarmaid O’Duibhne;” *CIA TUSA? MISI IOLLAN*, “who (art) thou? I (am) Iollan;” *AN FÍOR SÍN*, “whether (is) that true?” *NÍ MISI*, “(it is) not I.”

20. A verb in the passive voice takes the accusative form of a personal pronoun as its nominative; as *BÉANTAR É*, it is done; *BUALTEAR ÍAÐ* they are struck.

CHAPTER VII.

PREPOSITIONS.

1. A simple preposition governs the dative (including the ablative, for which there is no distinct

inflection); as *ċáinic sé ᷑o Corcaig*, he came *to Cork*; *agus cois an t-sléibhe*, at the foot of the mountain; *Airmiú cuimh ᷑o na h-úsgaráib*, “some of *the authors* reckon.” (See next rule for exception.)

2. The preposition *ioir* generally governs the accusative in the singular, and the dative in the plural; as *ioir Corcaíc agus lúimneac*, between Cork and Limerick; *ioir na cóigeaðaib*, “between the provinces.”

3. The prepositions *ann*, *go*, *iar*, *ria*, *le* or *re*, and *tar*, take *s* before *an*, the article, the *p* being sometimes joined with the preposition and sometimes with the article; as *anns an leabhar* or *ann san leabhar*, in the book; *leis an b-fear*, with the man. (See par. 7, page 17.)

4. The compound prepositions govern their nouns in the genitive; as *do rug an tonna ris a n-aṣair an čnuic*, “he brought the tun with him *against the hill*;” *a b-fiaðnuise b-fear n-Eirionn*, “*in presence of the men of Erin*;” *do ȝluaiseðar clann Tuireann rompa ȝionnsuir an čaċa*, “the children of Tuireann went forwards *towards the battle*.”

The following prepositions, *čum*, towards; *oála*, as to; *deir*, after; *iomtusa*, as to; *mearg* or *ameasg*, amongst; *réir*, according to; and *timčiol*, about, although having the form of simple prepositions, are in reality compound, and take their nouns in the genitive. See end of Par. 3, p. 88.

As a compound preposition consists of a noun governed by a simple preposition, it is in reality the noun-part of the compound preposition that governs the noun in the genitive, in accordance with Rule 1, page 95: thus the expression above, *a n-aṣair an čnuic*, is literally “*in the face of the hill*,” where *čnuic* is governed in the genitive by *aṣair*, face; and so of the others.

5. The simple prepositions, except *do*, *de*, *gān*, and *ioir*, generally cause eclipsis in singular nouns when the article is used; as *ó'n ȝ-cnoc sin*, “from

that hill;" ag an m-baile na h-inse šiar, "at the town of the island in the west." (See pages 17, 18.)

6. The simple prepositions generally cause aspiration when the article is not expressed; as **AIR** ḶARR AN ČROINN, "on the top of the tree;" ó MÚRAIB ñA TEAMRAČ, "from the ramparts of Tara."

Exception 1: A or I, IAR, and GO (when it means "with") cause eclipsis without the article; as A m-Baile AčA CLIAČ, in Baile-atha-cliath (Dublin); IAR n-šíLinn, "after the deluge."

Exception 2: AG, LE, and sometimes GO, cause no change in the initial, and GAN may either aspirate or not; as slán le MAIG, "farewell to (the river) Maigue;" o'n T-SIONUINN SOIR GO FAIRRGE, "from the Shannon east *to the sea*."

7. When a simple preposition ending in a vowel comes before the possessive A (whether it signifies *his, her, or their*), the letter n is inserted between the vowels; as TRE n-A bASAIB, "through his hands;" AN LÁ GO n-A LÁN T-SOILSE, "the day *with its abundant light*."

Except after DO and OE; as TABAIR FéUR O'Á ČAPALL give grass to his horse; BAIN GEUS O'Á G-CRANN, take a branch from their tree.

Before any other word beginning with a vowel, the letter h is usually inserted after these prepositions; as DO ČUAIR SE GO h-ALBAIN, he went to Alban (Scotland).

PART IV.

IDIOMS.

An idiom, in the sense in which it is used here, may be defined:—An expression that has acquired by usage a certain meaning, which becomes lost in a word-for-word translation into another language, so that in order to convey the true meaning in that other language, the form of expression must be changed.

Thus, “*τά an leabhar ag an duine*” is an idiom, for its sense is lost in the word-for-word translation, “the book is at the man;” and in order to convey the true meaning, the English expression must be changed to “the man has the book.”

Idioms constitute one of the chief difficulties in learning any language; and the student is recommended to master this Part, in which the principal idioms of the Irish language are explained and illustrated.

1. The Infinitive governing Possessive Pronouns.

The infinitive of a transitive verb governs its object in the genitive (Syntax, Rule 15, p. 112). When the object, instead of being a noun, is a personal pronoun, then, according to the analogy of the Rule quoted, it should be in the genitive case. But the genitive of a personal pronoun is a possessive pronoun; and possessive pronouns precede the words they refer to; so that the pronoun which represents the object of the action, is a possessive, and precedes the infinitive, influencing its initial as if it were a noun (see Syntax, p. 106, Rules 3, 4, 5). This gives rise to idiomatic expressions like the following, which are of very frequent occurrence.

English.	Irish.	Contracted to.
me,	do mo bualadh,	dom' bualadh.
thee,	do do bualadh,	door' bualadh.
him,	do a bualadh,	da bualadh.
her,	do a bualað,	da bualað.
us,	do ÁR m-bualadh,	dar' m-bualadh.
you,	do bUR m-bualadh,	(not contracted)
them,	do a m-bualadh,	da m-bualadh.

These may be translated literally, “to my striking,” “to their striking,” &c.

A like construction prevails in the case of a transitive participle: *agus a bualað*, striking him: *agus a bualað*, striking her: *agus an m-bualað*, striking us, &c. In this construction the participle may itself be governed in the genitive case by a noun:—*táinic mían a marbha ðam fein*, “a desire to kill them, has come to me” (lit. “a desire of the killing of them,” or “of their killing.”)

2. Compound Prepositions governing Possessive Pronouns.

A compound preposition governs the genitive (Rule 4, p. 1 14); and when the governed word is not a noun but a personal pronoun, this last becomes a possessive, and goes before the noun-part of the compound preposition, giving rise to idiomatic phrases, corresponding with those quoted in last Idiom. Example: *aír son*, for the sake of; *aír a són*, for his sake; *aír bür son*, for your sake, &c. *Do cuaidh Diarmaid oá h-éis*, Diarmaid went after her: *táinic tineas orra fein*, *agus ar a sliocht 'n-a n-diarið*. “sickness came upon themselves, and on their posterity after them.”

A similar construction often occurs with the compound adverbs. Example: *tar ais*, backwards; *do cuaidh sé tar a ais*, he went backwards; *do cuaidh sí tar a h-ais*, she went backwards; *do cuaidh siad tar a n-ais*, they went backwards, &c.

3. To die.

“To die,” is very often expressed in Irish by a phrase meaning “to find death;” the verb *fás*, find, being used for this purpose, in its various forms; as, *an dara bliagán dá éis sin fuair Irial bás*, “the second year after that Irial *found death*;” *agus más ann atá a n-ðán ðam bás o'fásail*, “and if it be here that it is in fate for me death to find” (i. e., “that it is fated for me to die.”)

There is, however, a single verb *o'eug*, meaning to die, but it is not used so often as the above. The following example exhibits both forms:—*A deir cuio do na seans-údaraið sur ab a ngleann da locha fuair naomh Paoruis bás; bioð do n-abraið drung oile surab ann*

Ardmaċa d'eug sé, "some of the old authors say that it is in Glendalough St. Patrick found death, although another party say that it is in Armagh he died."

4. Nominative Absolute.

What is called the nominative absolute in English is expressed in Irish by the preposition *air* (on), or *iar* (after), placed before the participle, and the preposition *do* (to) before the noun; which will be understood from the following examples:—*ar m-beiċ aċa fàda do Chormac ag a b-feiċiom*, "Cormac, having been a long time watching them" (lit. "on being a long time to Cormac a-watching of them"): *agus air m-beiċ ollam don Iuing*, "and the ship being ready" (lit. "and on being ready to the ship"); *agus air n-dul a Iuing dóiħ*, "and they having gone into a ship:" (lit. "and on going into a ship to them"): *iar m-beiċ tréan is an tír dóiħ*, "they having grown strong in the country" (lit. "after being strong in the country to them").

5. To have no help for a thing.

The Irish phrase corresponding to this is "to have no strength (*neart*) on a thing:" the "having" being expressed in accordance with Idiom 34, p. 130. *Ní b-fuil neart agum air an niħo sin*, I have no help for that thing—I cannot help that (lit. "there is to me no strength on that thing"), *agus a duħaġt Gráinne naċ raiħ neart aice fén air*, "and Grainne said that she had no help for it" (or "could not help it," "could not have prevented it"). Sometimes *l-eiġeas*, remedy or cure, is used in the same way as *neart*.

6. To cause a thing to be done.

To cause a thing to be done, to have it done, to see that it is done, to order it to be done, is often expressed in Irish by *do ċur* (or *do żabairt*) *fá deara*, "to put (or bring, or give), under notice." *Agus ro ċuir Mioħaċ fa n-deara uir Inse Tuile do ċur fúiħ*, "and Miodhach caused the mould (or soil) of Inis Tuile to be placed under you:" *do rug (rīg) breaż báis air an m-breieam*, *agus ċug fa deara a croċa* "(the king), passed sentence of death on the judge, and had him hanged" ("put under notice him to hang," or "his hanging").

7. Number of individuals of which a company is composed.

The number of individuals of which any collection of persons or things is made up, is often inserted, in the nominative form, in a narrative sentence, without any syntactical connexion with the rest of the sentence. *Āgus tāinic lir róimé arnamárač, caoſat cairp̄teac̄, o Shíoc̄ buiōb̄ Dēirg*, “and Lir set out on the morrow, fifty chariot-men, from Shee Bove Derg” (i.e., with fifty chariots): *Āgus tāinic b̄oōb̄ Dēar̄g, n̄aoi céad f̄it̄cead, na n̄ionnsuiḡe*; “and Bove Derg came, twenty-nine hundred men, towards them.”

This is like the English:—“The duke began his march next morning, 20,000 strong.”

8. Passive Verbs used impersonally.

A passive verb is often used impersonally; as *gab̄ra c̄usainn amac̄*, *Āgus n̄í lamfar fuiſusḡað ort*, “come forth to us and no one will dare to wound thee:” (literally, “and it will not be dared [to put] wounding on thee”).

This form of expression is of very frequent occurrence in the older narrative writings:—thus instead of “they advance; they plunge into the (river) Crond,” the writer expresses himself in this way:—“it is advanced; it is plunged into the Crond.”

9. Nominatives before Infinitives and Participles.

Instead of the usual assertive construction, consisting of a verb with its nominative (noun or pronoun), the following construction is often adopted:—the verb is put in the infinitive or participial form, and the subject (whether noun or personal pronoun) is placed before it, the pronoun being in the accusative form (but whether the noun is nominative or accusative cannot be determined, as there is no distinction of form); as *is amlair̄o b̄í n̄aisi Āgus Dēir̄ore, Āgus an cennchaim̄ etarra, Āgus iad̄ ag imirt uirre*, “it is in this manner Naisi and Deirdre were (seated), and the Cennchaimh (a chess board) between them, and they playing on it; *is amlair̄o vo b̄í Cob̄t̄ac̄, Āgus é ag sear̄gað*, “it is thus Cobhthach was, and he pining away;” *cuirios sceula go bláchnuro é féin vo b̄eit̄ ann sín*, “he sends word to Blanid, he himself to be there” (i.e., “that he himself was there”).

This form of expression is often adopted even when the verb or participle is (not expressed but) understood; as *do cuir (an cú) a ceann a n-ucc Óthiarmuða agus é ma chórla* “(the hound) put her head in the breast of Diarmaid, *and he in his sleep.*”

10. One person meeting another.

“Donall met Fergus” is often expressed in Irish in the following way:—*Do casadh Fergus air Domhnall*; literally “Fergus was met (or turned) on Donall.” *Do casadh Aoibhelle na Craige leíche oruinn*, “we met Eevel of Craglea” (lit. “Eevel of Craglea was met [or turned] on us”): *cia casfaidh orm acht scuaidh-bean*, “whom should I meet but the fair woman” (“who should be met on me”).

The same idea is expressed by the verb *tárla*, happened: *agus tárla oiglaic orrca ar m-boiglaic*, “and they met a youth on the moor” (lit. “and a youth happened on [or to] them”): *trialluim go Sliað mis go ttárla báinba go n-a draoičib orra ann*, “they travel to Slieve Mish until they met Banba with her druids there” (“until Banba with her druids happened on[or to] them there”).

11. Although: Although not.

Tion go or *tion gup* has two opposite meanings which can only be distinguished by the general sense of the passage: sometimes it means “although” (or “although that”), and sometimes “although not.”

Although:—*A Fhinn, ap Órgar, tion sur foigre mo ḫaoil duitse ná do Óthiarmuð O’Óhuiòne*, “ ‘O Finn,’ says Oscar, ‘although my relationship with thee is nearer than to Diarmaid O’Duibhne.’ ”

Although not:—*do bérum cómaire le marc thíb, a Chláinn Uisnigh, tion go n-déntar lib í*, “I shall give a good counsel to you, O sons of Usna, though it will not be done by you;” *tion sur cearro mná an níò sin*, “although that proceeding would *not* be the business of a woman.”

12. To be able.

To be able to do a thing is expressed in different ways. The most usual is by phrases of the type, *is féirí le*, “it is possible with;” as *is féirí liom a théanach*, I can do it (lit. “it is possible with me to do it;” see Idiom 1.)

Another, and more idiomatic way, is by the verb *tigim*. “I

come," in its various moods and tenses; and with this verb "I can do," or "I am able to do," is expressed by "it comes with me to do;" as *muna ḫ-tigsead̄ ris an ḫailleac̄ ḫ-amas*, "unless he would be able to strike the hag" (lit. "unless it would come with him the hag to strike"); *ac̄t nios ṽoilge rinn má sin mar atáid̄ ár ḫ-trí feinniōe ceangailte mar ḫ-fiaðnuise, agus naċ̄ ḫ-tig rinn sgaoilead̄ ḫíoþ*, "and we think more grievous than that, how our three champions are bound in our presence, and that we are not able to free them:" *ní ḫuireann ualac̄ orrarnn naċ̄ ḫ-tig linn a iomċar*, "he puts not a burden on us that we are not able to bear."

Sometimes the verb *tá* or *is* is used instead of *tig*, and also the preposition *as* instead of *le*; as *ó naċ̄ liom ṽul ón ḫ-contabairt so*, "since I cannot escape from this danger" ("since it is not with me to go from this danger:" here *is* is understood); *ó naċ̄ ḫ-fuil ṽul uairò asum*, "since I cannot escape from him" ("since it is not with me to go from him:" here *tá* and *as* are used, as in "possession:" Idiom 34).

13. One of a pair.

One of a pair is often expressed by the word *leat̄*, half; *leat̄-cos*, one foot (lit. half-foot). In this compound the word *leat̄* is used adjectively, so that *leat̄-cos* means, not half of a foot, but a *half*-foot (i.e., a foot which is itself a half, i.e., half of a pair). So also *leat̄-súil*, one eye, *leat̄-taoþ*, one side, &c. *Is amlarò ṽo ḫi an riȝ̄ sin agus leat̄-laṁ airȝ̄io air*, "it is thus that king was, and one hand of silver on him."

14. To be alone.

The word *aonap*, which the dictionaries now interpret as meaning "alone," was originally a concrete numeral noun like *triur*, *cúigear*, &c. (p. 39), and meant "one person;" and this meaning it retains to some extent in its present application:—*ṽo siubal mé a'm aonar*, I walked alone (lit. "I walked in my one person" [see Idiom 42]: or "I walked as one person"); *ṽo siubal tú a'v aonar*, thou walkedst alone; *ṽo siubal sí n-a h-aonar*, "she walked alone," &c.; *a'm aonap seal a siubal ḫrœas*, "alone, of a time, walking I was."

Another way of saying in Irish "he is alone" is "he is with himself:" *tá mé liom fén*, I am alone ("I am with myself"); *tá tú leat̄ fén*, thou art alone: *tá siað leo fén*, they are alone: *tá mo māicrín 'n-a covalad̄, agus mise liom fén*, "my mother is asleep, and I am alone."

15. One thing given for another.

When you give or take, sell or buy, one thing for another, it is expressed in Irish by saying you give it, &c, *on* that other, the preposition **AIR** being used. **DÓ ḡUG SÉ TRÍ BA AIR AN S-CAPALL SIN**, he gave three cows for that horse: **AIR EIRE NÍ 'NEÓSAINN CIA ḥ-Í**, “for Erin I would not tell who she is” (*'neósainn* for *inneósainn*: see p. 63).

In this sense, the preposition **AIR** is set before the noun of price: **DÓ ČEANNUIGEAS AN BÓ BÁN SIN AIR SÉ PÚINT**, I bought that white cow for six pounds: **NÍ ḥ-IONGNA AR CORMAC, ÓIR IS MAITÍC AN LUAC TUGAS UIRRE**, “‘No wonder,’ says Cormac, ‘for good is the price I gave for it.’”

16. Debt.

The fact that Donall owes Fergus money, or that Donall is under any obligation to pay money to Fergus, is expressed by saying, “Fergus has money on Donall,” the preposition **AIR** being used before the name of the debtor, and the act of “having” being expressed by **TÁ** and **AG** as in Idiom 34. **TÁ TRÍ PÚINT AG FERGUS AIR DOMNALL**, Donall owes three pounds to Fergus: **TÁ BEAN EILE A N-EOCAILL A B-FUIL AICI CORÓIN AIR**, there is another woman in Youghal to whom he owes a crown” (“to whom is a crown on him”): **IS AMHLAÐ DÓ BÍ AN RÍS SO, AGUS CÍOS CÁM MÓR TROM AG FOMORAIΣ AR TUATHA DE DANANN RE N-A LINN**, “it is how this king was, and (that) the Fomorians had a great heavy tribute and rule over the Tuatha De Dananns during his time” (“a great heavy tribute and rule was with the Fomorians on the Tuath De Dananns”).

17. Asking, entreating, &c.

To ask, request, entreat, or demand of a person, is expressed by “to ask, &c, *on* that person:” **IARR AIR DHIA NA GRÁSA SIN**, “ask of God those graces.”

18. Sensation, suffering, &c.

That a person is hungry, thirsty, cold, afraid, sick, &c, is expressed in Irish by saying that hunger, thirst, cold, fear, sickness, &c, is *on* him, the preposition **AIR** being used: **TÁ FUACHT ORM** (cold is on me), I am cold; **NÁ BÍOÐ EAGLA ORT** (let not fear be on thee) be not afraid: **DÓ BÍ TART MÓR AIR SHEASÁN** (great thirst was on John), John was very thirsty: **CAD**

é sín ORT? (what is that on thee?) what ails you? Δ ḡuisle mo ḡROIDE CREUO í AN ḡRUAIM sín ORT? “O pulse of my heart, what is that frown on thee?”

19. One person entertaining feelings (of love, hatred, &c.) towards another.

That Donall entertains certain feelings towards Fergus is expressed by saying that Donall *has* such feelings *on* Fergus; the preposition AIR being used before “Fergus,” and the act of “having” being expressed by TÁ and AG, as in idiom 34:—ní mó AN CION RO ÓA AG AONGHUS ORTSA MÁ AN CION RO ÓA AG MUINTIR AONGHUSA AR MAC AN REACTAIRE, GO RAIO FORMAO MÓR AR T'ACCAIR FA NA CIONN SÍN, “not greater was the affection Aonghus felt for thee than the affection the people of Aonghus felt for the son of the steward, so that thy father felt great jealousy on that account” (lit. “not greater was the affection which was with Aonghus on thee, so that great jealousy was on thy father on the head of that:” see Idiom 32).

Where the agent is not specified, a similar form of expression is retained: you are loved, is expressed by love is on you: you are esteemed, by estimation is on you, &c.: TÁ MEAS AGUS CION MÓR AIR OSCAR (great esteem and love are on Oscar), Oscar is greatly *esteemed and loved*.

20. To know : to know a person.

To know is usually expressed in Irish by the phrase knowledge is with me, I have knowledge; and to know a person by “to have or to give knowledge on a person:” “‘AGUS AN Ó-FUIL A FIOS AGAOO FÉIN, A FHINN?’ ‘NÍ Ó-FUIL,’ AR FIANN:” “‘do you know it, O Finn?’ ‘I do not,’ says Finn” (lit., is its knowledge with you, O Finn? It is not, says Finn): AN ÁIL LEAT FIOS D'FÁSAIL? do you wish to know? (“is it a desire with you knowledge to get?”): BÍOO A FIOS AGAT, A LEUZCOIR, “know O reader” (“be its knowledge with thee, O reader”): (strangers are seen coming towards Finn and his party), RO FIAFRAIG, FIANN DO CÁC AN Ó-TUGAO DAR AICNE ORRA, “Finn asked of the others did they know them” (lit. “did they put knowledge on them”): AGUS TU-GASSE AICNE ORM, “and thou knewest me” (lit. “and thou didst put knowledge on me”).

21. To part from, to separate from.

To separate from a person is expressed in Irish by “to separate *with* a person,” the preposition **le** or **re** being used: much in the same manner as we say in English, “I parted with him:” **SCARADAR** **féin agus Diarmaid re n-a céile**, “they themselves and Diarmaid separated from each other:” **DO SCAR SÉ RINN**, “he separated from us;” **SCAR OSCAR le DIARMAID**, “Oscar separated from Diarmaid:” **DO SCAR RIR**, “he separated from him;” **AJ CURRAC CILL-DARA DO SCARAS le GRAO MO CROIOE**, “at the Curragh of Kildare I parted from the ‘love of my heart.’ ”

22. However great, however good, however brave, &c.

DA placed before some abstract nouns gives a meaning which, though it is well understood in practical use, has puzzled grammarians to analyse and explain, and which will be best understood by a few examples. From the adjective **Álainn**, fine or beautiful, is formed **Áilne** or **Áille**, fineness, beauty; and **DA Áilne** or **DA Áille**, means “however fine,” “how fine soever.” Examples:—**NÍ Ó-FUIL PIONÚS DA MEURO, NAC Ó-TUIL-LEO**, “there is no punishment however great that they do not deserve:” **AN TREAS GEAIS, GÁN COMRAG AOINFIR DA CRÉISI AIR TALMAIN Ó-OBAO**, “the third injunction, not to refuse single combat to any man on earth, however mighty:” **DEAMAN NÁ DIABAL DA CRÉISE LÁM**, “demon or devil, however mighty of hand.”

23. Both one and another: both these and those.

Both, in such phrases as “both men and women,” is often expressed in Irish by the preposition **IN**, between; as **BAIN-FIÖ DIA SÁSAM ÓIOB ANN GAC SOCAR DA Ó-TUG ÓIR CÉILL, CEAOFADAIÓ, AGUS CONAC SHAOGLAIC**, “God will exact an account from them in every advantage He has given to them *between* understanding, senses, and worldly prosperity:” **CÚIS MILE ÓIR FEARAIÓ AGUS MNÁIÓ**, five thousand, between men and women (i.e. both men and women, or reckoning men and women).

24. To overtake.

To overtake a person is often expressed by “to bear on a person,” the verb **BEIR**, bear, being used with the preposition

AIR. Examples:—FÁSÓAM AN TULAĆ SO AR EAŚLA GO m-BEARFAÖ AONGUS AN BHROṄA ORRUINN, “let us leave this hill for fear that Aonghus of the Brugh would overtake us:” LEANUS AIR A LORG GO RÉIMDÍREAC IAO DO’N MHÚMAIN, GO RUṄ ORRA AG SOLCÓIR, “he follows them on their track directly to Munster, so that he overtook them at Solchoid.” GO NAĆ FÚISFRÓIR AN FONN SIN NÓ GO m-BEIREAD MARCRA SIÖE ORRA, “that they might not leave that territory till the fairy cavalcade should overtake them:” FANFAÖRA LEAT AR AN LÁČAIR SO NÓ GO m-BEIRIR ORM ARÍS, “I will wait for thee at this place till thou overtake me again:” SAĆ AON AIR A m-BÉARFPAINNSI, “every one whom I would overtake” (“every one on whom I would bear”).

25. To win a game on a person.

To win a game on a person is expressed by “to put a game on him:” AGUS DO ḡÓS OISÍN AN FEAR SIN, AGUS RO ČUIR AN CLUIČCE AR FHIONN, “and Oisin moved that (chess-) man and won a game on Finn:” AGUS NÍ RUṄAMAR AN BÁIRE AR A ČÉILE, “and we did not win the goal on each other” (i.e. neither of us won the goal on the other.”

26. To think long, short, well of, ill of: to think hot, cold, hateful, &c.

Such phrases as “it seemed long to him,” “he thought it long,” are expressed by the verb **is** and the preposition **le:** **is** FAÖA LIOM (“it is long with me”), it seems long to me, I think it long. AGUS DO BO FAÖA LE NA ÓRÁICRIÖ DO BI BRIAN UÄČA, “and his brothers thought it long that Brian was away from them” (“it was long with his brothers, &c.”): **is** OLc LI NN AR ÓEAN RIOT, “we think bad of what has happened to thee” (“it is evil with us:” AR = A RO, and A means “all that:” see p. 47): TUIGIMSI NAĆ IONMUIN LEATSA ME FÉIN, “I understand that thou dost not love me” (“that not beloved with thee am I myself”).

Observe the difference in meaning conveyed by the two prepositions **le** and **do:** **is** MAIČ É DO’N B-FEAR SIN, it is advantageous to that man (whether he thinks it so or not): **is** MAIČ É LEIS AN B-FEAR SIN, that man thinks it advantageous (whether it is really so or not). The following example shows both forms:—BA MAIČ LIOM SIUBAIL ACCT NIOR MAIČ ÓAM É, I wished to walk, but it was not good for me.

27. To wish for: to like: to be glad of: to prefer.

After the same manner, a desire, wish, liking for, &c., is expressed by such words as **mian**, desire; **aic**, pleasure; **áil**, will or pleasure, &c.: **is áill liom fios o'fášail**, I wish to know ("it is a desire with me knowledge to get"); **do cuit-finn féin súil an cairt sin aod h-uict a n-ionad do súl**, AR **fear** **vioib:** **do b'aic liom sin**, AR **an dórseoir**, "I would put the eye of that cat in thy lap in place of thy eye," says a man of them. 'Iwould like that,' says the door-keeper."

The word **feárr**, better, is used in the same way to express preference: **is féárr liom do òearbráctair ná cusa**, I prefer thy brother to thyself: I would rather have thy brother than thyself (lit. "thy brother is better with me," &c.); **do b'fíeárr le brigid leabhar marc ná airgead**, Brigid would prefer a good book to money (lit. "a good book would be better with Brigid," &c.). The following example shows the application of both **mian** and **pfeárr**:— **ní h-é is mian leis an uigðar** (**ní mo, ní h-é is mian liom-sa**) **tu do b'reugan**; **aict is é do b' fíeárr leis sin** (**agus liom-sa**) **do croidhe do sealbhusdá**: "it is not what the author wishes (neither is it my wish) to amuse thee (**tu do b'reugan**) but it is what he would prefer (and I also) to possess thy heart."

Féárr followed by **le** expresses mental preference as shown above: but **feárr** followed by **do** is equivalent to the English expression "better for," "better that," &c. Is **feárr domsa** **anois**, ar Lugh, **fios na h-earca úd do tabairt** **daoibh**. Is **feárr céana**, ar íadsan, " 'it is *better for me* now,' says Lugh, 'a knowledge of that eric (fine) to give you.' 'It is better indeed,' say they."

28. To think little of—much of—to grudge.

Similar to the preceding is the use of the words **beag** and **mór** (little and much) in several idiomatic phrases, which occur very frequently, and which will be best understood by the following examples:—**Is mór liom an luac sin**, I think that price large ("that price is large with me"); **óir do m-beic mac agusinne iona suirde rompa**, **níor beag leo do cùis òar marbá** é, "for if (even) a child of us would be sitting ("in his sitting:" see Idiom 42) before them, they would not deem it (too) little cause to kill us" (lit. "it would not be with them a small [thing] for a cause to kill us:" for **òar marbá**: see Idiom 1): **òar mo briatár ar**

Naisí ní beag linné sin uair, “‘by my word’ says Naisi, ‘we do not think that small from thee.’”

The two expressions **is mó le** and **ní beag le** (it is much with, it is not little with) are used to express the idea of unwillingness or grudging: **is mó liom aon píngín do čab-airt** **do**, I think it much—I grudge—to give one penny to him: the very same idea is expressed by **ní beag liom aon píngín**, &c., I think it not little—I grudge—one penny, I think one penny enough, &c. The two reverse expressions (**ní mó le—is beag le**) are used to express willingness—not grudging, &c.: **ní mó liom na trí ba so do čab-airt** **do**, I do not think it much—I am quite willing—I do not grudge—to give him these three cows; which might also be expressed by saying, **is beag liom**, &c.—I think it little—I would give more, I would have more, I would want more; I am willing—I do not grudge, &c.—**do beirmí o ar m-briatár, ar siað, nač beag linn a m-beuram** **go Fionn** **doibh**, “‘we give our word,’ said they ‘we think it not small—we grudge—what (A = all that: see p. 47) we shall bring of them to Finn.’” (See Mr. Standish O’Grady’s note, in the “Pursuit of Diarmaid and Grainne,” p. 140.)

When **mór** and **beag** are used with the preposition **do**, they give the idea of enough or not enough *for* a person: **níor beag do (marbád óar n-aircreac)** **mar eirc uaiþpe**, (the killing of your fathers) is not small to him—is enough for him—should suffice for him—as an *eric* (fine) from you: **níor beag duit a bá do bretó ó Fhionn**, “it was not little for you—it was enough for you—to take away his cows from Finn.”

29. Woe to.

Is maírg doon b-fear sin, woe to that man: **a maírg do'n drung ḫoireas do'n olc maic**, “woe to those who call evil good.” Expressions of this kind are sometimes elliptical; as, **is maírg nač n-ðéanann comairle deag-ṁná**, “woe [to him] who doeth not the counsel of a good wife” (lit. “it is woe who doeth not,” &c.).

30. So . . as: as . . as.

When these “correspondent conjunctions” are expressed in Irish, the second one is usually translated either by **agus**, “and,” or by **le**, “with:” **agus a duibairt ria an tan do bíoibh a mac com arracta agus go lionfaibh a meur an iobh**, “and he said to her when his son should be so grown (**com arracta**) as that his finger would fill the ring” (lit.

"so grown *and* that his finger," &c): **vo** **ví** **a** **sleas** **cóm** **reamar** **le** **mol** **muillinn**, "his spear was as thick as the shaft of a mill" (lit. "as thick with.")

Agus follows **amla** or **amla** (thus, so, in this manner), much in the same way as it follows **cóm**; and in this use it sometimes answers very nearly to "viz.:—" **ar** **amla** **vo** **fuaire** **naisi** **acas** **Déirdre**, **acas** **an** **Cennchaem** **etarra**, "it is thus he found Naisi and Déirdre, and the *Cenn-chaemh* (a kind of chess-board) between them." (Meaning, "it was thus he found them, *viz.*, with the *Cenn-chaemh* between them.")

31. Every other day: every second day: every alternate day.

Phrases like these are often expressed in Irish by the indefinite pronoun **gac**, followed by the preposition **le** or **re**. **Sac** **le** **Domna****c** **as** **oul** **cum** **teampoill**, going to the church every other (or every alternate) Sunday: **na** **tri** **rigche** **sin** **vo** **Thuathaib** **De** **Danann** **vo** **ví** **i** **b-flaitios** **Eireann** **gac** **re** **m-blia****g****ain**, "these three kings of the Tuatha De Danann were in the sovereignty of Erin every other year" (i.e. each for a year).

32. The Head.

The word for *head* is used in Irish, as it is in most languages, in a great variety of idiomatic phrases. Some have been already noticed among the compound propositions; and these and others will be understood from the following examples.

A **g-ceann** **bliadna**, at the end of a year: **vo** **ví** **sia****d** **a** **g-ceann** **na** **faicce**, they were at the end of the field. **A** **duibairt** **naisi** **le** **h-Ardan** **oul** **air** **ceann** **Fergus**, "Naisi said to Ardan to go for Fergus" ("to go on the head of Fergus"): **fillse** **air** **a** **g-ceann**, "turn thou back for them" ("on their head"). **O** **nac** **liom** **oul** **ón** **g-contabairt** **so** **am** **ceann**, "since I am not able to escape from this danger [that lies] before me" (**am** **ceann**, "in my head" = before me). "**Racfa****d** **a** **ceann**, **a** **Fhinn**, **agus** **a** **g-ceann** **na** **Feinne**, "I will go to thee (or before thee), O Finn, and to the Feni" ("in thy head and in the head of the Feni"). **acas** **beir****ti** **buair** **acas** **benna****ctam** **oá** **ceann**, "and bear ye victory and blessing on its account" (**oá** **ceann**, "from its head"). **Tar** **ceann** **sur** **shaoil** **an** **toiceac** **na** **rai** **bao****g****al** **ar** **bit** **ar** **fein**, "although the rich man thought that there was no danger at all to (i.e. of) himself" (**tar** **ceann** **sur**, "over the head that" = although). **Is** **ionsgna** **ouitse** **an** **gra****o** **sin** **vo**

ČABAIRT DÁMSA TAR ČEANN FHINN, AR DIARMAID, “it is a wonder for thee to give that love to me instead of (to) Finn” says Diarmaid” (TAR ČEANN FHINN, “over the head of Finn,” in preference to Finn, instead of Finn)

33. A proper noun with the genitive of a noun of office.*

When a proper noun is followed by a noun in the genitive signifying a profession, office, trade, or calling, the resulting phrase has a curious idiomatic meaning.

Seán an fígeadóra, which is word for word, “John of the weaver,” means in reality “John (the son, son-in-law, servant, or some other close connection) of the weaver.” **Seán na baintreabhaigé**, “John (the son, &c.) of the widow.”

If, while the proper name is in the nominative, the second noun is also in the nominative, the meaning is quite different, the second noun being then simply in apposition to the first: thus **Fergus maor** (nom.) means “Fergus the steward;” but **Fergus an maoir** (gen.) is “Fergus (the son, &c.) of the steward.”

Suppose, now, you have to express in Irish such a phrase as “the house of Fergus the steward,” in which the proper name must be in the genitive: as the two nouns are in apposition, the second, according to a rule of Syntax (Rule 6, p. 96) should also be in the genitive: **teach Fhergus an maoir**. But here is an ambiguity; for, according to the present idiom, this expression would also mean “the house of Fergus (the son, &c.) of the steward.” To avoid this ambiguity, a disagreement in case is allowed in such expressions, between the two nouns, when they are in apposition. Thus “the house of Fergus the steward” is **teach Fhergus maor** (in which **Fhergus** is gen. and **maor** nom.); whereas **teach Fhergus an maoir** is understood to mean “the house of Fergus (the son, &c.) of the steward.” So in Dr. MacHale’s translation of Homer, the first two lines are rendered:—

Bruic Acul seinn, óig neamhóra, a's buan fíear;
Acul mic Peil, an gaisgríoeac teinnteach gar.

“The wrath of Achilles sing, O heavenly virgin, and his enduring anger, of Achilles son of Peleus, *the fiery fierce hero*.”

* The substance of this explanation and the illustrative examples have been taken from an interesting Essay on the present state of the Irish language in Munster, written and sent to the Royal Irish Academy by Mr. John Fleming of Rathgoruiuck,

Here the last noun **ΣΑΙΣΣΙΩΕΑČ**, with its two adjectives, is in the nominative, while **Αcuil**, with which it is in apposition, is genitive.

In the first example, Rule 7, p. 96, **bean Sheasain an Fisceaðóra**, accordingly, is not “the wife of John the weaver,” but “the wife of John (son, &c.) of the weaver;” the wife of John the weaver, would be expressed by **bean Sheasain Fisceaðóir**.

34. Possession.

There is no verb in Irish corresponding to the English verb “to have” as expressing possession; and the sentence “the man has a book,” is expressed in Irish by the verb **τά** and the preposition **ας**, in this form, **τά leabhar ας an τuine**, “a book is at (or with) the man:” **τά airgead αςum** (“money is with me”), I have money: **cia bέ ας a ö-fuil airgead** (“whoever with whom is money”), whoever has money. **ní Féirír le τuine an nιð nač m-beroeačs aige do čabairt uarð, αsus ní ö-fuil do-marbčačt αsumsa**, “it is impossible for a man to give away what he does not himself possess, and I do not possess immortality” (word-for-word: “it is not possible for a man the thing which would not be with him to give from him, and not is immortality with myself”). **do aiget Concubár borac αcas do fiafrais τé an raið fleð ollam aige vo**, “Conchobhar addressed Borach and inquired of him whether he had a feast prepared for him” (lit.: “whether a feast was ready with him [i.e. Borach] for him [i.e. Conchobar.”]

The use of pronouns in this idiom sometimes gives rise to further idiomatic complications. **Cia αguinne ας a ö-fuil an fírinne?** “Which of us has the truth?” This is word for word: “Which of us with whom is the truth ?” and the interrogative appears without any government or other syntactical connection. Some good authorities believe that the preposition **ας** in this construction governs not only the relative **α**, but also, by a sort of attraction, the interrogative **cia**. **τά bean eile a n-eočaill a ö-fuil aici corón air,** “there is another woman in Youghal who has a crown on him” (i.e. to whom he owes a crown: Idiom 16). Here, also, there is an apparent redundancy, the act of “having” being expressed doubly, namely, both by the relative **α** before **ö-fuil**, and by **aici**; and the relative, according to the same authority, would be governed by the preposition **ας** of **aici**. The sentence may be expressed without redundancy in this manner:—**τά bean**

eile a n-θeoċaill a᷑ a b-fuit corón air. The last example exactly resembles the English “there is a man in Dublin whom I owe a pound to him:” and perhaps it would be better to consider it, like the English sentence, merely as bad grammar, which is to be avoided by using a different form of expression in the manner shown. The apparent redundancy of the first example, which is from a good authority, cannot, however, be got rid of in this way. So also in, cia leir an tseac sin (who owns that house), the le of leip would appear to govern the pronoun with which it is combined, and also the interrogative cia.

35. Ownership.

Ownership is expressed by the verb is and the preposition le, with: is leatса an tseac, “the house belongs to thee” (lit. “it is with thee the house”): is lem’ aċair na ba sin, those cows belong to my father (“it is with my father those cows”): cia leis na ba sin? who owns those cows? (“who with him [are] those cows?”) Oir is le neac éigin do Thuaċċa De Danann na muca, “for the pigs belong to some person of the Tuatha De Danann.” (A wizard holds a golden branch in his hand, and king Cormac asks him) an leat fém an c̄raob sin? “Does that branch belong to thyself?”

Observe the distinction between this idiom and the last in the following sentence:—Tá airgead zo leór aṣa, aċt ní leat fém é, “thou hast plenty of money, but it does not belong to thyself.”

36. Wanting a thing.

The idea of wanting a thing, including a wish to get it, is usually expressed by the verb tā and the preposition ó from: tā leabhar uaim, I want a book: lit., “a book is from me:” creuó aċá uai? “What dost thou want?”

37. Genitive plurals of Personal Pronouns.

Each of the three prepositional pronouns, a᷑ainn, a᷑aiḃ, aċa, has two different meanings, which are always easily distinguished by the context.

1. Possession, as in Idiom 34: Óo bí leabhaip aċa, they had books.

2. The sense of a genitive plural when following words denoting a part: ᷑ac fear a᷑uinn, “each man of us;” ro eiriġ an ḫara fear aċosan do ḫéanam an cleasa, “the

second man of them (*acosan*, “of themselves”) arose to perform the feat:” *CIA AGUMNE AS A Ó-FUIL AN FIRINNE, AR FIANN*, “‘which of us has the truth,’ says Finn” (*AS A Ó-FUIL*, “with whom is” = “has:” see Idiom 34).

38. To give a name.

To give a name to a thing is often expressed in Irish by *to put a name on it*; *MAR GO CTUGCAR ÓA BANTUATAC AIR BHÉCOILL AGUS AIR DHANANN*, “as (the name) ‘two ladies’ was put on Bechoill and Danann: i.e. as they “were called ‘two ladies.’” *MAR GO Ó-CTUG CLEAS AIR AN G-CLEAS SIN*, “as he called that feat ‘a feat’ ” (lit. “as that he put [the name] ‘feat’ on that feat”).

Sometimes, also, to give such and such a name to a thing is expressed by “to say such and such a name with a thing:” *Ros-Ó-SÁILEAC RIS A RÁRTEAR LUMNEAC ANU*, “Ros-dashaileach which is called Limerick now” (lit. “R. with which is said ‘Limerick’ now”).

39. *De* after comparatives.

The prepositional pronoun *de* “of it,” is often postfixed to comparatives, giving rise to some idiomatic phrases. *AGUS GION GO Ó-FUIL CURU AGUINN DO MARBÁ Ó DIARMAÐA, NI MÓRE DO SGEUBÁ (AONGUS) AN FIRINNE UAIM*, “and although we have no part in killing Diarmaid, Aongus would not the more receive the truth from us” (here *móre* is *de* added to *mó*, the comparative of *mór*, great: for *gion go*= “although not:” see Idiom 11). *IS FUSAÐE Ó'PHIONN ÁR LORGNA LEANAMAIN, AN EAÐRA ÓEIC AGAÍNN*, “it is the easier for Finn to follow our track that we have the horses” (*fusaðe=de* after *fusa*, comparative of *furus*, easy): i.e. “our having the horses makes it easier for Finn,” &c.

40. “A man of great strength.”

“A man of great strength,” is expressed by the Irish *FEAR IS MÓR NEART*, which translated word for word is “a man (who) is great strength:” the words *mór neart* being in the nominative, and not in the genitive, as might be expected from the English “of great strength.” This idiom is extremely common in Irish, the verb *is* in some of its forms being always used; and when translating it, remember that the Irish words, though in the nominative case, convey the exact sense of the genitive with “of” in English, and must be

rendered accordingly. **NÍ RAIÓ A SG-CÓMAIMSIR RIS FEAR BA MÓ ÓR AGUS AIRGEAD MÁ DIARMAID**, “there was not at the same time with him a man who had more gold and silver than Diarmaid” (lit. “a man [who] was greater gold and silver,” i.e. “a man who was of greater gold and silver.”) **DO DÉARCAS AN BÉITÍC BA NIAMHÓA CRUÍC**, “I saw a lady (of) bright shape:” **CALAM BA FEÁRR BIADÓ AGUS DÉOC**, “a land (of) the best food and drink:” **OISÍN BA CÉREUN NEART A'S LUÍC**, “Oisin of mighty strength and vigour.”

Sometimes the preposition **GO** (with) is used instead of the verb: as **FEAR GO MÓR NEART**, a man with great strength, i.e. a man of great strength.

41. A wish.

“I wish I had such and such a thing,” is often expressed in Irish by some such form of phrase as “Alas that I have not got it!” the word **GÁN** being generally used as the negative particle. **AS TRUAIGS GÁN PEATA 'N MÁOIR AGUM!** “I wish I had the shepherd’s pet!” (Here **AS TRUAIGS**, “it is pity” = “alas:” **AGUM** is used to denote possession, with its verb understood—Idiom 34: and the word-for-word translation is “it is pity not the pet of the shepherd with me.”) **A DHIA GÁN MÉ AM' ABAILLÍN**, “I wish I were an apple” (“O God, I not an apple”—or “in my apple.”)

42. One noun asserted of another by **TÁ**.

When one noun is asserted of another (or of a pronoun) by the verb **TÁ**, in any of its forms, it requires the aid of the preposition **A** or **ANN**, “in,” and of one of the possessive pronouns, giving rise to a unique and extremely curious idiom. Thus “I am a man,” if expressed in Irish by **TÁ**, will be (not **TÁ MÉ FEAR**, but) **TÁ MÉ AM' FEAR**, which is word for word, “I am in my man.” **BÍ TUÍA A'D SÍAN AGUS MISE AM' FEOIL**, “be thou the knife and I the flesh.” (lit. “be thou in thy knife and I in my flesh”). **BECHOILL AGUS DANANN DO BÍ I N-A M-BAINTEIGEARNAIÓ**, “Bechoill and Danann who were princesses” (“who were in their princesses”): **IS FEÁRR ÉIREAN MÍLE UAIR NÁ TUÍA, CUIR A SG-CÁS GO B-FUIL TÚ A'D RÍG NO A'D PRIONNSA**. “he is better a thousand times than thou, even supposing that thou art a king or a prince” (**CUIR A SG-CÁS**, “put in case” = “suppose” or “although”): **FAGAÍD NÁ DAOINE BÁR, CUIR ACA 'N-A**

n-ÓSÁNAIB, AGUS CURÓ ACA 'N-A SEANÓIRIGÍB, "men die ('receive death:' " Idiom 3), "some of them (CURÓ ACA: Idiom 37) as youths, and some as old men" ("some of them in their youths and some of them in their old men.") A ÓHÍA, TSÁN MÉ AM ÁBAILLÍN! "would God that I were an apple !" ("O God without me in my apple!").

Even when one thing is not directly asserted of another, this use of the preposition and the possessive is extremely common in Irish. TÁIMSE AM' CÓRLA, "I am asleep" ("I am in my sleep"): D'ÉIRIG INA SEASAM, "he stood up" ("he arose in his standing"): MISE AM' AONAR, "myself alone" ("myself in my one person"): CLÁUNNA LIR INA TS-CÉACRÁR, (the four children of Lir) ("the children of Lir in their four-persons").

The preposition *ann* is used with *tá* without any governed noun, to denote existence in general; as ATÁ AON ÓIA AMÁIN ANN, there is only one God; here the *ann* in the end, which has no representative in the translation, means "in it," i. e. in existence. Sometimes this *ann* answers very nearly to the English "here," or "there;" as IS TÚ ATÁ ANN "it is thou who art in it—who art in existence—who art there."

43. Differences between *is* and *tá*.

There are several differences, as to the manner of application, between *is* and *tá*.

1. *Is* is a simple copula, and is used to predicate one thing of another, or to connect an attribute with its subject; as IS MÉ AN T-SLÍGE, AN FÍRINNE, AGUS AN BÉAÇA, "I am the way, the truth, and the life."

But if existence in connection with place is to be predicated of the subject, *tá* is used; as TÁ MÉ A M-BÁILE AÇA CLÍAÇ, I am in Dublin: AN RAIÓ TÚ ANN SIN? wert thou there?

If an adjective is to be predicated of a noun, either *is* or *tá* may be used:—IS BREAS ÆN LÁ É, or TÁ ÆN LÁ BREAS, "it is a fine day," or "the day is fine."

2. *Is* connects one noun or pronoun with another, as predicate and subject directly, and without the aid of any other word; as IS FEAR MÉ, I am a man. But *tá* cannot do this without the aid of the preposition *i* or *nn* and the possessive pronoun, as already explained in last Idiom; as TÁ MÉ AM' FEAR, I am a man ("I am in my man.")

3. **Is** expresses simply that a person or thing is so, and implies nothing more. But when the assertion is made by **τά**, there is often something more implied than is contained in the direct assertion—the idea that the person or thing has not always been so—has come to be so, &c. Thus, if you say to me **is** **fear é**, your assertion means nothing more than that “he is a man”—not a woman or a coward, &c. If we see a figure approach in the dark, and that after looking close you find it is a man, your correct phraseology is, **is** **fear é**, by which I understand you to mean “it is a man”—not a woman, or a beast, or a ghost.

But if you say to me **τά** **sé 'n-a fíear** (“he is in his man”), here I take you to mean a very different thing—that he is now a man, no longer a boy, grown up to be a man. If I were speaking of a person as if he were a mere boy, and that you wished to correct this false impression, the proper phraseology would be, **τά** **sé 'n-a fíear**.

But though this idea of an implied change is often contained in an assertion made by **τά**, it is not always so; as **ní b-fuil acht aon Dia amáin ann, atá 'n-a fíor-spioraí**, there is only one God alone, who is a pure spirit: here the last assertion is made by **τά** though there can be no change.

4. **Τά** is used with **as** to denote possession (Idiom 43); **is** is used with **le** to denote ownership (Idiom 44); in these two applications the two verbs cannot change places.

Τά may indeed be used with **le**, but the idea conveyed is not “belonging to,” but “being favourable to:” **Do bí Eolus leo** “(Eolus was with them”), does not mean that they were the owners of Eolus (which would be the meaning if **is** had been used), but that “Eolus was favourable to them”—“was on their side.”

5. **Τά** is used with the Irish words for cold, heat, hunger, &c, as in Idiom 36; as **τά ocras orm**, hunger is in me, I am hungry: here **is** cannot be used.

6. When the comparative of an adjective is used as in the following sentences, either verb will answer:—**is saiorbre é ná mise** or **τά sé níor saiorbre ná mise**, he is richer than I.

But when the superlative is employed, **is**, not **τά**, must be used:—**is é is fear is saiorbre san túichté é**, he is the richest man in the country.

APPENDIX.

Additional Examples of Declensions.

FIRST DECLENSION.

BREAC, *a trout.*

Singular.	Plural.
N. b <small>R</small> EAC.	b <small>R</small> IC.
G. b <small>R</small> IC.	b <small>R</small> EAC.
D. b <small>R</small> EAC.	b <small>R</small> EACAI <small>B</small> .
V. A b <small>R</small> IC.	A b <small>R</small> EACA.

SECOND DECLENSION.

COS, *a foot.*

N. cos.	cosa.
G. coise	cos.
D. cois.	cosaib.

THIRD DECLENSION.

F <small>I</small> ŞEADÓIR,	<i>a weaver; masc.</i>
N. F <small>I</small> ŞEADÓIR.	F <small>I</small> ŞEADÓIRI <small>Ş</small> e.
G. F <small>I</small> ŞEADÓRA.	F <small>I</small> ŞEADÓIR.
D. F <small>I</small> ŞEADÓIR.	F <small>I</small> ŞEADÓIRIB.

AČAIR, *a father; masc.*

N. A <small>Č</small> AIR.	A <small>Č</small> RE, A <small>Č</small> RE-
	A <small>Č</small> A.
G. A <small>Č</small> AR.	A <small>Č</small> REA <small>Č</small> .
D. A <small>Č</small> AIR.	A <small>Č</small> REA <small>Č</small> AI <small>B</small> .

(MÁČAIR, *a mother*, and BRÁČAIR or ÓEARBRÁČAIR, *a brother*, are declined in the same way.)

BLIAĐAIN, *a year; fem.*

N. b <small>L</small> IAĐAIN.	b <small>L</small> IAĐA <small>N</small> T <small>A</small> .
G. b <small>L</small> IAĐNA.	b <small>L</small> IAĐAN.
D. b <small>L</small> IAĐAIN.	b <small>L</small> IAĐA <small>N</small> T <small>A</small> IB.

AINM, *a name.*

N. A <small>IN</small> M.	A <small>IN</small> MANN <small>A</small> .
G. A <small>IN</small> ME, A <small>IN</small> MA.	A <small>IN</small> MANN.
D. A <small>IN</small> M.	A <small>IN</small> MANNAI <small>B</small> .

FOURTH DECLENSION.

TEME, *a fire.*

Singular.	Plural,
N. t <small>E</small> ME.	t <small>E</small> INTE.
G. t <small>E</small> ME.	t <small>E</small> INEA <small>Đ</small> .
D. t <small>E</small> ME.	t <small>E</small> INTIB.

EINÍN, *a little bird.*

N. é <small>IN</small> ÍN.	é <small>IN</small> ÍNI <small>Đ</small> E.
G. é <small>IN</small> ÍN.	é <small>IN</small> ÍN.
D. é <small>IN</small> ÍN.	é <small>IN</small> ÍNI <small>B</small> .

FIFTH DECLENSION.

LÁNAME, *a married couple.*

N. LÁNAME.	LÁNAME.
G. LÁNAME.	LÁNAME.
D. LÁNAME.	LÁNAMEIB.

IRREGULAR NOUNS.

ZA, *a spear.*

N. Z <small>A</small> , Z <small>A</small> Č.	Z <small>A</small> OI, Z <small>A</small> EČ,
	Z <small>A</small> OIČE.
G. Z <small>A</small> I, Z <small>A</small> OI.	Z <small>A</small> Č, Z <small>A</small> EČA <small>Đ</small> ,
	Z <small>A</small> OIČEA <small>Đ</small> .
D. Z <small>A</small> , Z <small>A</small> I.	Z <small>A</small> OI <small>B</small> , Z <small>A</small> EČAI,
	Z <small>A</small> OIČI <small>B</small> .

CRÓ, *a hut, a sheepfold.*

N. CRÓ.	CRAOIČE, CRÓIČE.
G. CRÓ.	CRÓ.
D. CRÓ.	CRAOIČI <small>B</small> , CRÓIČI <small>B</small> .
V. A CRÓ.	A CRAOIČE, A CRÓIČE.

SLIAĐ, *a mountain.*

N. S <small>L</small> IAĐ.	SLÉIČE.
G. SLÉIČE.	SLÉIČEA <small>Đ</small> .
D. SLÉIČE.	SLÉIČI <small>B</small> .

